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Teacher Perceptions of Violence Prevention Approaches and Self-Efficacy: Where Do We Go from Here?

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Teacher Perceptions of Violence Prevention Approaches and Self-Efficacy:
Where Do We Go From Here?

by
Kristie Jo Redfering

A dissertation presented to the Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences of
Nova Southeastern University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Nova Southeastern University

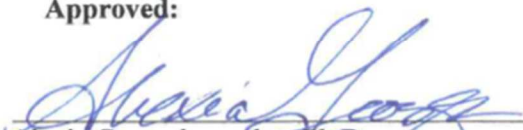
2014

Nova Southeastern University
Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences

This dissertation was submitted by Kristie Jo Redfering under the direction of the chair of the dissertation committee listed below. It was submitted to the Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Conflict Analysis and Resolution at Nova Southeastern University.

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April 23, 2014
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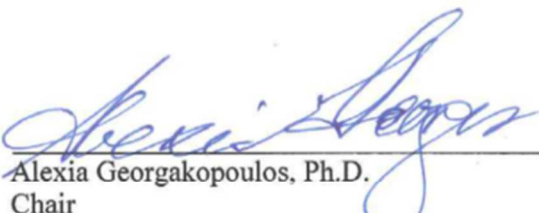


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Abstract

This research project explored teachers' beliefs of violence prevention approaches and self-efficacy. Relevant research indicates the value of violence prevention and conflict resolution education as well as the importance of teacher support of such programs. Theories of decision-making and self-efficacy provide the foundation for the variables that were examined through use of a survey instrument developed by Dr. K. King and Dr. T. Kandakai. Participants were sampled from two Florida school districts. Independent variables included teacher background and experience indicators including demographics and teaching/training experience. Dependent variables were comprised of multiple indicators of outcome value, efficacy expectation, and outcome expectation. MANOVAs and ANOVAs were utilized to identify relationships between the independent and dependent variables. Among the statistically significant findings a theme emerged: training history including variety of training, specific topics, and the interaction effects of combinations of training impacted perceptions of self-efficacy and outcome expectation more significantly than other demographic and background characteristics. The results suggest that the provision of a variety of training for teachers may benefit violence prevention practice by increasing perceptions of efficacy which may lead to an increase in consistent and effective utilization of various conflict resolution education programs and strategies.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Conflict is an inevitable part of life and how we respond to it can either be constructive or destructive (Deutch, 1973). Educators have worked to instill the values of peace and the skills for constructive conflict resolution for hundreds of years. Peace education is often conceptualized as human rights, disarmament, development, multicultural, and violence prevention educations. Each of these related approaches takes a slightly different swing at the same target: educating for equity, responsibility, and the elimination of violence.

Violence prevention in schools in the United States often seeks to reduce violence through specific programming. It has been found that children frequently utilize destructive strategies such as attacking peers in response to conflict (Johnson & Johnson, 1996). Components that contribute to destructive conflict responses such as aggressive fantasies and hostile attributional biases tend to increase with grade level (Aber, Chaudry, Jones, & Samples, 1996) suggesting that early intervention such as that provided by school-based conflict resolution programs may prevent their escalation. The issue of violence and aggression in schools has become prominent in the last two decades following school shootings in numerous states. The Centers for Disease Control reports the results of a Youth Risk Behavior Survey conducted in 2011 (Centers for Disease Control, 2012). In the 12 months preceding the survey, almost 33% of students surveyed had been involved in a physical fight—12% had been involved in fights on school property. 7.4% of students were threatened or injured with a weapon at school and almost 6% reported

missing school in the last 30 days due to safety concerns. Further, more than 20% reported being bullied at school.

In response to such statistics many school districts are implementing conflict resolution education (CRE) programs for use with traditional approaches such as parental contact, detention, and referring students to administrators or school counselors. CRE involves teaching and modeling of skills and methods of resolving a variety of conflicts. Communication and problem solving are key components of CRE that when maximized should empower participants in more effectively maintaining relationships and managing conflict. CRE programs may vary but most include the development of critical thinking skills, problem solving procedures, social and emotional skills, and an understanding of the nature of conflict (Jones, 2003, p. 20). For this discussion CRE refers to peer mediation, bullying prevention, conflict resolutions skills (i.e. problem solving, nature of conflict, nonthreatening communication), and social/emotional skills (i.e. anger management). Violence prevention refers to CRE and traditional approaches (i.e. crisis intervention, student suspension and/or detention, parent contact, referrals to administrators and/or counselors).

Many CRE programs require significant time and financial commitments due to the broad scope of their application. A number of schools attempt to cut these costs by utilizing only one aspect of such programs, such as peer mediation or bullying prevention curricula. Some districts in Florida have numerous schools that utilize these approaches while others have abandoned programs where faculty and school administrators have shown little enthusiasm. Common strategies implemented either comprehensively or as stand-alone programs include bullying prevention, conflict resolution, peer mediation,

anger management, and crisis intervention. Some schools may adopt programs that teach a greater understanding of conflict and its management without the peer mediation or bullying prevention component. The result is wide variation of and fluctuation in the use of CRE among school districts in Florida and among individual schools within these districts.

These programs are dependent upon school staff to remain effective and enduring. Rational choice theory and self-efficacy theories suggest that educators regularly assess the value of educational material, curricula, and/or programming. This evaluation often determines the likelihood and/or style of use. While administrators may make the ultimate decision about the use violence prevention approaches in their schools and guidance counselors may supervise and manage programs, teachers very often implement lessons and refer students to peer mediators or other participants. Teachers are at the frontline of the endeavor to reduce violence and promote constructive conflict behaviors in schools. Without teacher commitment to such programs, lessons may not be appropriately delivered (or delivered at all) and opportunities to practice conflict resolution (CR) skills may go unaddressed. Thus program fidelity and viability is largely the responsibility of teachers. Because the choice of what program to use—even whether to use one at all—is often left to individual schools, and because the sustainability of such programs can be tenuous, it is crucial to understand how these programs are perceived by those who would implement them.

Goals

Based on previous research and the above discussion of program viability, this project has sought to understand how teachers' perceptions of violence prevention are related to demographic and background factors, and beliefs of self-efficacy.

Conceptually, this project explores the perceptions that drive and inhibit teacher acceptance of violence prevention approaches by operationalizing the essential questions that a teacher would ask (Figure 1). These goals explored teacher perceptions of violence prevention approaches as they existed in two school districts in Florida.

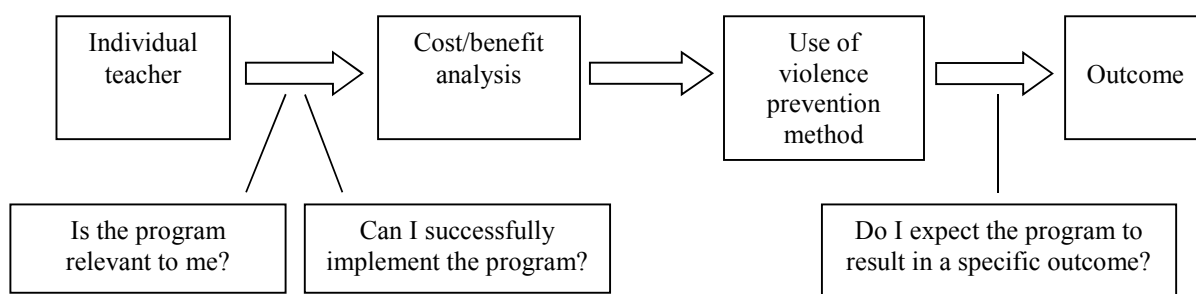


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

The first goal of this research is to explore potential relationships between demographic variables and perceptions of violence prevention. The purpose of gathering this information is to better understand variables that may be related to perceptions of violence prevention approaches. The second goal of this research is to identify relationships between training/experience and perceptions of violence prevention approaches. One study (Kandakai & King, 2002b) found that pre-service teachers who had received training in violence prevention were less likely to believe in its effectiveness in reducing school violence. This research project attempted to reveal more information

by examining what, if any, effect teaching experience and continuing education training may have on teacher perceptions. The third and final goal of this research is to explore the relationships between beliefs of self-efficacy in implementing violence prevention approaches and training/experience. Some theories (discussed in the next sections) suggest that experience and training impact beliefs of self-efficacy which may be related to analysis and decision-making. Exploring teachers' confidence in their abilities to effectively teach CRE may reveal the need for new directions in training and orienting veteran and new educators.

This project was driven by eight research questions that were posed in response to the three primary areas of perceptions that impact teacher choice behavior: outcome value ("Is this program relevant?"), efficacy expectation ("Can I implement it effectively?"), and outcome expectation ("Will this program work?"). Demographic and background variables were quantitatively analyzed against these dependent variables in an effort to identify potential relationships between teacher experience and perceptions of various approaches and self-efficacy.

RQ1a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to *demographic variables*?

RQ1b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to *background variables*?

RQ2a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of specific violence prevention skills related to *demographic variables*?

RQ2b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of specific violence prevention skills related to *background variables*?

RQ3: In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in teaching violence prevention skills related to *demographic variables*?

RQ4: In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in teaching violence prevention skills related to *demographic variables*?

RQ5: In what ways is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to *demographic variables*?

RQ6: In what ways is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to *background variables*?

With this and subsequent research greater insight into these perceptions may yield valuable information in determining the direction of violence prevention training in schools. Often it is in the schools that children learn nonviolent means of dealing with disputes. Further, imparting to students knowledge regarding tolerance, effective communication, and dealing with emotions is important in building the foundation for the adults that they will become. It is critical to continue to strive to improve our schools and communities through educating young people in conflict resolution.

Chapter II: Context and literature review

Through the ages humankind has waged war on itself. Nearly all societies on earth have fought against other societies and even fought against its own. While often war is romanticized and soldiers deemed heroes, peace is a condition that most humans desire. The question of how to achieve peace is not easily answered. Different values call for different strategies. Harris (1988, p. 8) asserts that there are five primary approaches to achieving peace. The first is *peace through strength* in which groups are deterred from waging war as a result of the opposition being equally powerful and able to inflict damage. This approach is often supported by “the values of militarism and a reliance on technological solutions to social problems” (Harris, 1988, p. 9). Another approach is through *pacifism* in which all forms of violence are rejected. To counterbalance security fears, nonviolent methods of conflict resolution must be adopted for pacifism to be successful. A third approach is *peace through justice*. The focus here is on issues such as poverty and human rights that when resolved equitably are thought to create the context for peace. *Institution building* is another approach that can be seen as peace through politics. This approach seeks to utilize international institutions such as the United Nations to create pathways for conflict resolution. The final approach is *peace education*. Peace education teaches about the conditions for peace and problems that result from violence and militarism as well as the skills for obtaining conditions for peace and resolving conflicts. In this way peace education is, according to Harris (1988) not only *about* peace, but also *for* peace. According to Harris (1988, p. 22) moving from

(a) understanding of how attitudes about conflict, war, and peace evolved, to (b) information about peace for transformation is a continuum (Figure 2).

Decreasing of Action	Increasing of Action
apathy-seclusion-cynicism-ignorance//awareness-consciousness-engagement-ability	
Decreasing Power	Increasing Power

Figure 2. The capacity of peace education. From Harris, 1988, p. 22.

The goal of peace education is to move people from decreased power to increased power by educating individuals to become capable and socially responsible. This process may take place in a variety of contexts including in regions experiencing open conflict or post-conflict recovery and with participants varying in age and role. While some efforts may focus on ending violence by targeting influential cadres of adults others may aim to build positive peace by instituting peace education curriculum in schools.

Peace Education

Educating children has often been viewed as the three Rs: reading, ‘riting, and ‘rithmetic. But there is a much deeper and more fundamental role that schools play in educating youth. Rosen & Salomon (2011, pp. 135-136) assert that schools are responsible for transmitting “the national (or tribal) received culture, thereby preparing the young generation to contribute to society in its current and anticipated form.” This national culture may include factors such as masculinity versus femininity, individualism versus collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, perceptions of the distribution of power, and orientation to the past, present, and future (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede & Bond, 1988).

Augsburger (1992, p. 7) suggests that culture “embodies the authenticity and unique purposes of each community.” Durkheim (1897/1951, pp. 372-373) asserted that education “is only the image and reflection of society. It imitates and reproduces the latter...it does not create it.” Others might argue that schools are a place to impact social change. Nelson Mandela (2012) sees education as “the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world.”

In terms of political endeavors, states have used education to meet their goals and aspirations such that “schooling has not simply been a casualty of conflict, but rather has been implicated in the conduct, resistance, and aftermath of wars” (Blair, Miller, & Tieken, 2009, p. 1). In the early 1980s teaching about nuclear weapons and nuclear war stirred a controversy between curriculum developers, the Union of Concerned Scientists with the National Education Association, and the American Federation of Teachers. The question was whether the teaching guides amounted to objective content or propaganda (Mack, 1984). Resistance to the curriculum hinged on the perception that in order to balance the content there should be included discussion of Soviet occupation of other countries, aid to Communists, and imprisonment and interrogation strategies. The inclusion of these areas of content had the potential to add to the fears and feelings of helplessness that research of the time had identified as present among young people in the shadow of nuclear threats (Beardslee & Mack, 1982; Goodman, Mack, Beardslee, & Snow, 1983; Mack 1984). Mack (1984) argues that there are “resistances to knowing” both on the individual level and collectively. At the individual level resistance to knowing is essentially an avoidance of the horror in which an individual attempts to turn

attention to less emotional topics when confronted with difficult information. Collective resistance refers to the society or nation:

Collective resistances have the explicit or tacit support of the community. They are a product of the way a nation and its institutions organize their basic assumptions about the world. These assumptions are held in conformity with what the society regards as its essential political and economic purposes, values, and ideologies...At the level of the nation, our collective resistance is most prominently manifested in relation to the representation of the enemy. To maintain the attitude of belligerence necessary to sustain a giant war effort—in the nuclear age, a war preparedness—a society must have both a worthy enemy and a willingness to kill on a mass scale. (Mack, 1984, pp. 264-265)

In order to engage in violence and war it is often necessary to dehumanize the opponent through language and symbols. Military training often refers to opponents as “spoilers” of the peace (Zoppi & Yeager, 2008, p. 288) in order for soldiers to be willing to engage in violence. A truly balanced view of the Soviet Union would include discussion of Soviet citizens’ perceptions of their security, their fears, and their experience. Highlighting only the adverse features of Soviet government would serve to maintain the negative image of the “enemy” and therefore perpetuate the collective resistance.

Schools have been a center for resistance and the cause of revolution. The use of clandestine schools such as in the “flying university” in Poland in the 1970s and in the Warsaw Ghetto during the Holocaust served to provide education “irrespective of the petrified bureaucratic systems of power and all political and pragmatic impacts”

(Buczynska-Garewicz, 1985/2009, p. 155) and preserve culture while resisting efforts to eradicate it (Kardos, 2002/2009). Education here was a tool for resistance.

The use of schools for social change is also referred to as reconstructionism forwarded by John Dewey. Dewey advocated for critical thinking and an organizing of experience for the purpose of “intelligent action” (Harris, 1988, p. 23). Paulo Friere also encouraged students to transform their lives through education. One example of education for social change is post-liberation Nicaragua. The Sandinistas rose up in the 1960s against leader Anastasio Somoza’s system in which development was focused on maintaining unskilled agricultural labor. This system resulted in economic disparity and between 50% and 85% illiteracy among citizens. Literacy was neither required nor endorsed:

Politically, it was unwise for Somoza to undertake a genuine nationwide literacy program. Basic education would have provided the poor and disenfranchised with the potential tools to analyze and question the unequal power relationships and economic conditions under which they had lived. (Cardenal & Miller 1981/2009, p. 266)

The Sandinistas took up the cause of General Augusto Cesar Sandino whose vision of development was strongly connected to literacy. Following the successful liberation was launched The National Literacy Crusade in which more than 400,000 Nicaraguans learned basic math and reading skills. The overarching goal of the Crusade however, was not only to teach basic skills but also to develop critical thinking skills to solve social problems through use of a “pedagogy of shared responsibility” (Cardenal & Miller 1981/2009, p. 284) in which the teacher acts as a learning facilitator rather than

disseminator of information. In this way the Literacy Crusade was not only education but social creation as well.

Given that education can serve to promote wartime ideologies, resistance, and liberation, the challenge for education today is in harnessing the power of education to create a stable and peaceful future. Reardon (1992, pp. 391-92) weighs in on the role of education in forwarding a peace agenda:

There may be no more significant responsibility and challenge to peace studies than the engagement of learners in the search for a new paradigm of peace to replace the present paradigm of war, which delimits all thinking and determines our culture. That search is the great intellectual adventure of our time.

History. Religious teachings are likely the earliest written source of the promotion of peace. The religious teachings of Jesus Christ, Buddha, Mohammed, Moses, and others contain guidelines for achieving peace but historically religion has undergirded many violent conflicts. More recently in Europe the Czech educator, Comenius (1642/1969), advocated for shared knowledge which results in understanding and peace.

Harris (2008, p. 1) asserts that “the growth of peace education parallels the growth of peace movements.” The modern anti-war movement began in Europe following the Napoleonic wars when academics and leaders came together to formally examine and argue against war and armaments. Around this time peace education emerged in children’s literature. At that time peace education involved social issues such as slavery, social justice, and the treatment of animals (Cutt, 1979; Mahon, 2000).

Concepts of war and militarism were addressed in a collaboration called *Evenings at Home* which was completed in 1796 (Aikin & Barbauld, 1796). While there were other writings by that time that criticized war, one of the stories within these six volumes, “Things by Their Right Name” by Anna Barbauld is considered the first such children’s story. Several of the stories in *Evenings at Home* feature pacifist characters rather than the commonly proffered soldier and warrior heroes. Mahon (2000, p. 170) argues that “Aikin’s and Barbauld’s efforts are a practical and realistic attempt to shape the child’s value system through revised definitions of greatness and heroism.”

In the late 19th century, peace societies began to develop in Europe and North America. The objectives of these groups included efforts to integrate peace (Cook, 2008) and incorporate international studies into existing curriculum (Cooper, 1987). Many organizations in North America perceived schools to be a viable method of disrupting the individual and societal origins of violence (Williamson & Gorman, 1989). In the early 20th century, School Peace Leagues common in the United States sought to teach students through their teachers about world justice. Others began addressing international relations in social studies as an attempt to balance out earlier efforts of “indoctrinating youth into nationalism” which was seen as “encouraging and enabling” World War I (Harris, 2008, p. 2). Internationally, women were involved in the form of the International League for Peace and Freedom, the Women’s Peace Party, and the 1915 International Conference of Women for Permanent Peace. These groups held that education was an important tool in the creation of peace (Toh & Floresca-Cawagas, 2000). Many such organizations pursued a “values clarification” curriculum in which students examined war and nonviolent methods of achieving peace such as international

negotiation (Meyers, 1984). This did not meet with much success however as the content stood in stark contrast to the national patriotism narrative that continued to be the pervasive theme in school text books and other literature. National groups such as American School Peace League, the Canadian League of Nations Society, the 1932 Disarmament Conference and the International Peace Committee sought to forward peace education for youth (Cook, 2008).

Also taking place were educational movements addressing social justice led by Jane Addams (1907) and authoritarianism led by Maria Montessori (1946/1974). Addams saw poverty as connected to war and believed that to create a democratic community education must understand the challenges of urban life. She also promoted greater educational choice for women and campaigned for the League of Nations. Addams won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1931. Montessori supported student choice of study believing that empowering them to be more free in their thinking would result in a greater ability to resist leaders who might lead them to war. Her vision was for a school community in which members were cared for much like a family.

A new threat to peace emerged with the development of the atomic bomb and nuclear proliferation. In the 1960s two researchers examined the effects of nuclear fears on youth. Both Escalona (1965) and Schwebel (1965) found that children believed that their futures would be affected by nuclear weapons. Further the Task Force on Psychological Aspects of Nuclear Developments suggested that kids were deeply disturbed by fears of nuclear war (1981). These findings led to a number of related peace education publications in the 1980s. Meyers (1984) and Brocke-Utne (1985) wrote from the feminist perspective. According to Meyers (1984, p. 21):

Learning to understand war and peace should be a necessary facet of children's education. Children must learn to be peacemakers in order to survive in the nuclear age. They need an education that affirms life and encourages new thinking about conflict, progress, and peacemaking. Feminist educators can play an important role in peace education by helping children understand the connections between militarism and patriarchy. In a classroom environment that is characteristically feminist, nonauthoritative, and consciousness-raising, children can be led to envision a peace-loving society and to develop the commitment to achieve it.

Brocke-Utne argues against masculine aggression (i.e., war, domestic violence) and suggests that feminism is a lens through which society can work toward disarmament. Harris (1988) called for a holistic approach which could be applied to formal education systems as well as community education. He promoted a pedagogy that must include cooperative learning, moral sensitivity, democratic community, and critical thinking. Humane relationships, global citizenship, and planetary stewardship were forwarded by Reardon (1988) as the key elements of peace education. These concepts paved the way for current definitions of peace education.

Conceptualization of peace education. Various scholars and practitioners have forwarded definitions of peace education which vary but often overlap. Harris (2008) suggests that peace education broadly involves teaching about violence and strategies for peace. Others (Hilal & Denman, 2013) espouse the view that peace education is a process of changing behavior to prevent violence through the acquisition of knowledge,

skills, attitudes, and values. One of the more comprehensive definitions of peace education addresses both the philosophy and the process:

Peace education is currently considered to be both a philosophy and a process involving skills, including listening, reflection, problem-solving, cooperation and conflict resolution. The process involves empowering with the skills, attitudes and knowledge to create a safe world and build a sustainable environment. The philosophy teaches nonviolence, love, compassion and reverence for all life.

Peace education confronts indirectly the forms of violence that dominate society by teaching about its causes and providing knowledge of alternatives. (Harris & Morrison, 2003, p. 9)

There are a number of different types of education that are often cited in discussions of peace education. These include global, human rights, disarmament, and environmental or development education. Looking at peace education in terms of interpersonal conflict skill acquisition it may include conflict resolution programs, violence prevention programs, and nonviolence education. There is another facet of peace education as well—the context and method of delivery of content. This includes the incorporation of multicultural methods and strategies, a context of cooperative learning, and the use of constructive controversy in the classroom.

Beginning in the 1970s a “global education” began to emerge. Definitions of global education have shifted significantly since its inception. In the beginning global education was primarily comprised of understanding of global systems such as economic, political, ecological, social and technological along with cultural perspectives and values, global history, and global issues/conditions (Hanvey, 1975; Kniep, 1986). Since then

themes of anti-racism, the role of non-governmental agencies, indigenous peoples' views, global interdependence, perspective taking, resistance to stereotyping, and multiculturalism have all become important features of global education (see Cook, 2008 for a more detailed review of the history of global education). Cook (2008) argued that global education in schools has become a broader topic over time while peace education has become narrower in its focus often thought of as more closely targeting interpersonal conflict issues. Subsequently, peace education is frequently viewed as one of several objectives of global education (Figure 3).

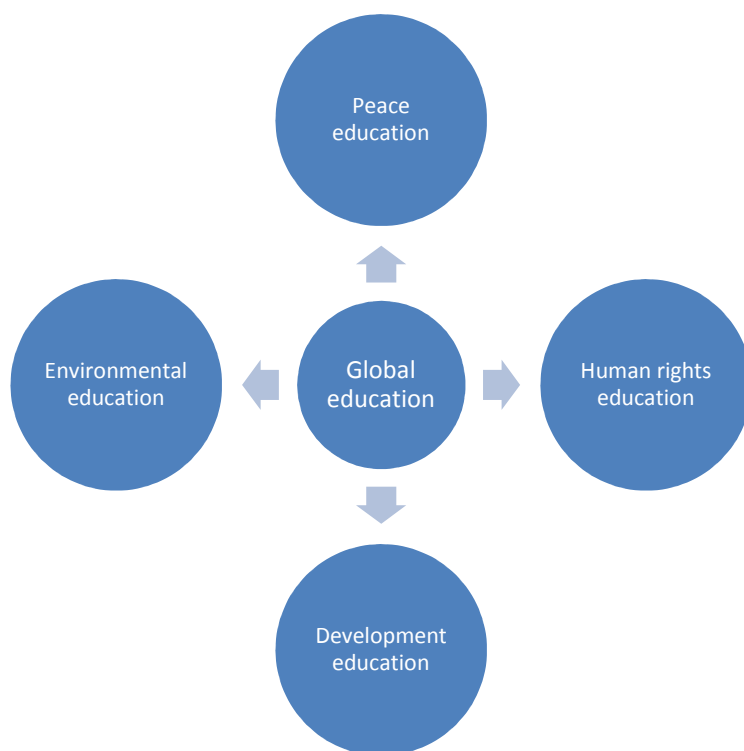


Figure 3. Four core content areas of global education. Adapted from "Global education, peace education and language teaching," by Cates, K.A., 1992, *TESL Reporter* 25(1), p. 3.

The relationship between global and peace education is dependent on whether peace education is viewed from a narrow or broad perspective. In the narrow view, peace education is focused on conflict resolution, war, disarmament—issues of direct violence or negative peace. Reardon (1988) suggests that the broader view is more comprehensive including issues of structural violence or social justice such as poverty, human rights, and development. When viewed through the comprehensive lens, global and peace education are very tightly related. Cook (2008, p. 903) argues that the narrow view, or what she refers to as “personal violence prevention,” marginalizes peace education with its focus in schools largely on conflict resolution skills and bullying prevention. She cites three issues with this narrow conception:

First, it tends to ignore or at least mute the structural roots of violence and war—to understand peace as a goal only for one classroom or school or community.

This understanding results both in a more manageable problem, but also one that is removed from its sources of persistent conflict, and only superficially to resolution. Second, by narrowing the range to local community issues, the alliance between peace and global education resources and personnel is weakened, with the field of peace education left isolated. Third, the pale and instrumental definition for peace studies has no apparent history or constituency beyond those who crave peace, and who among us does this not include? (Cook, 2008, p. 903)

Rather than addressing issues of peace as stand-alone programs such as peer mediation, conflict resolution skills training, or bullying prevention programming, calls have been made for an integration of global themes related to peace in schools. Rossi (2003) argues that the nature of conflict has changed therefore it is necessary to teach for global

citizenship in world history, geography, and government lessons. He advocates for a curriculum that addresses complex problems and the role of culture and identity, and that explores not only conflict resolution but reconciliation.

Rodden (2004, p. 339) proposes that educators “make a more conscious effort to draw attention to specific ethical values in school lessons, such as justice, civility, responsibility, tolerance, compassion—and forgiveness” by teaching students about our mistakes in history as well as our accomplishments. Similarly, Lin (2007) suggests that school reform discourse should include a school orientation that teaches students empathy, compassion, and the ability to understand multiple perspectives.

There are both short-term and long-term goals of peace education. Short-term goals may focus on ending acts of violence. Long-term goals may focus on creating the context and structures that promote peace. Harris (1988, pp. 17-20) identified ten main goals of peace education that encompass both short and long-term goals.

- To appreciate the richness of the concept of peace through teaching about the past, present and future.
- To address fears about violence and war.
- To provide information about defense systems so that citizens are not reliant on military structures to make security decisions unilaterally.
- To understand war behavior at the individual, cultural, and political levels.
- To develop intercultural understanding for the purpose of promoting mutual respect and insight into intergroup and international conflict.

- To provide a future orientation in which students envision a peaceful society and methods for attaining it.
- To teach peace as a process in which individuals can learn the skills and strategies to resolve conflicts and thereby become effective peacemakers.
- To promote a concept of peace accompanied by social justice including concepts of human rights, development, feminism, racism, and nonviolence.
- To stimulate a respect for life through caring for self, others, and the planet.
- To end violence at all levels of society by teaching students about the dynamics and results of violence and how to resolve conflicts nonviolently.

Peace education may be implemented in a variety of contexts including areas of intractable conflict or post-conflict settings. Often the most obvious place to work for peace is where there is war. There are numerous obstacles involved including issues of identity and overcoming human rights violations. Salomon (2011) addressed four challenges of peace education in regions of intractable conflict. He suggests that in order for peace education to see success there must be a change not only in the student but it must change the social ethos in which perceptions and attitudes are based. This “ripple effect” (Salomon, 2011, p. 47) occurs through intergroup contact whereby an individual spreads knowledge or beliefs to others who in turn have contact with others thereby affecting those individuals. How the ripple effect operates within the realm of peace education remains largely in question.

Another challenge concerns the endurance of peace education effects. There is a body of research that suggests that peace education is effective. Nevo & Brem (2002, p.

276) conducted a meta-analysis of research and determined that 80-90% of the reviewed programs were effective or partially effective. It was noted that one weakness was in the rarity of delayed post test procedures such that the durability of efforts is unclear.

Salomon (2004) found that differences among individuals impact the effectiveness of peace education. Another interesting finding was peace education can affect participants' attitudes and perceptions by preventing them from deteriorating or becoming more adverse to peace later even when a program does not change them altogether. While this finding was promising to peace efforts since attitudes and beliefs are keys to the perpetuation of conflict, Rosen & Salomon (2011) found differences between convictions and beliefs and the ability of peace education to meet with positive outcomes. A peace education program was implemented among Israelis and Palestinians and resulted in changes in peripheral beliefs while centrally held beliefs remained unchanged. Further, the observed effects were short lived. Salomon (2006) suggests that short-term, intensive peace education interventions may result in more observable change in peripheral beliefs, while it is perhaps the long-term, extensive interventions that create deeper, more persistent changes.

Another challenge of peace education in areas of intractable conflict is in the need for different approaches for the various involved parties. A number of studies have suggested that differing conceptions of peace, legitimization of narratives, and the needs of each party may result in the necessity for differing approaches (Biton & Salomon, 2006; Gallagher, 2007; Hussesi, 2009; Rosen, 2008). The idea is that the attainment of a common goal may not always be the optimal strategy when working with parties in conflict. For example, an oppressed minority may need a strengthening of identity

whereas the oppressor may need to develop empathy and perspective taking skills. With the variety of types of peace education approaches and their implementation there is more research needed to understand the efficacy of these endeavors.

Bar-Tal & Rosen (2009) suggest conditions under which peace education efforts are most likely to succeed. The first are political-societal conditions: (a) progress toward peace, (b) support for peace process, (c) ripeness for reconciliation, and (d) governmental and political support. The second set of conditions is educational: (a) ministerial support, (b) well-defined peace education policy, and (c) peace education authority. Peace education efforts should not wait until these conditions are met, but they are indicative of the types of challenges that peace education may face.

Peace education as a general concept shares many common goals with global education efforts. Peace education can be approached from both a narrow or broad perspective and may target ethics, attitudes, and/or skills. Contexts for implementation of programs are varied, taking place in regions of conflict often focusing on violence reduction and in regions of relative peace. While research is promising it is certainly not conclusive as to the combinations of factors for efficacy.

Human rights education. Following World War II, the United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) was adopted whose 30 articles became the foundation for international human rights law. Subsequently human rights education became an important discourse. According to the Council of Europe Youth Program (2002, p. 17), human rights education is defined as “educational programs and activities that focus on promoting equality in human dignity, in conjunction with other programs such as those promoting intercultural learning, participation and empowerment of

minorities.” At its core is “the development of critical thinking and the ability to handle conflict and take action” (Council of Europe, 2002, p. 22). The overarching values of human rights education are illustrated in Figure 4. This figure conceptualizes human rights education as configured at the center of several ideologies including peace education.

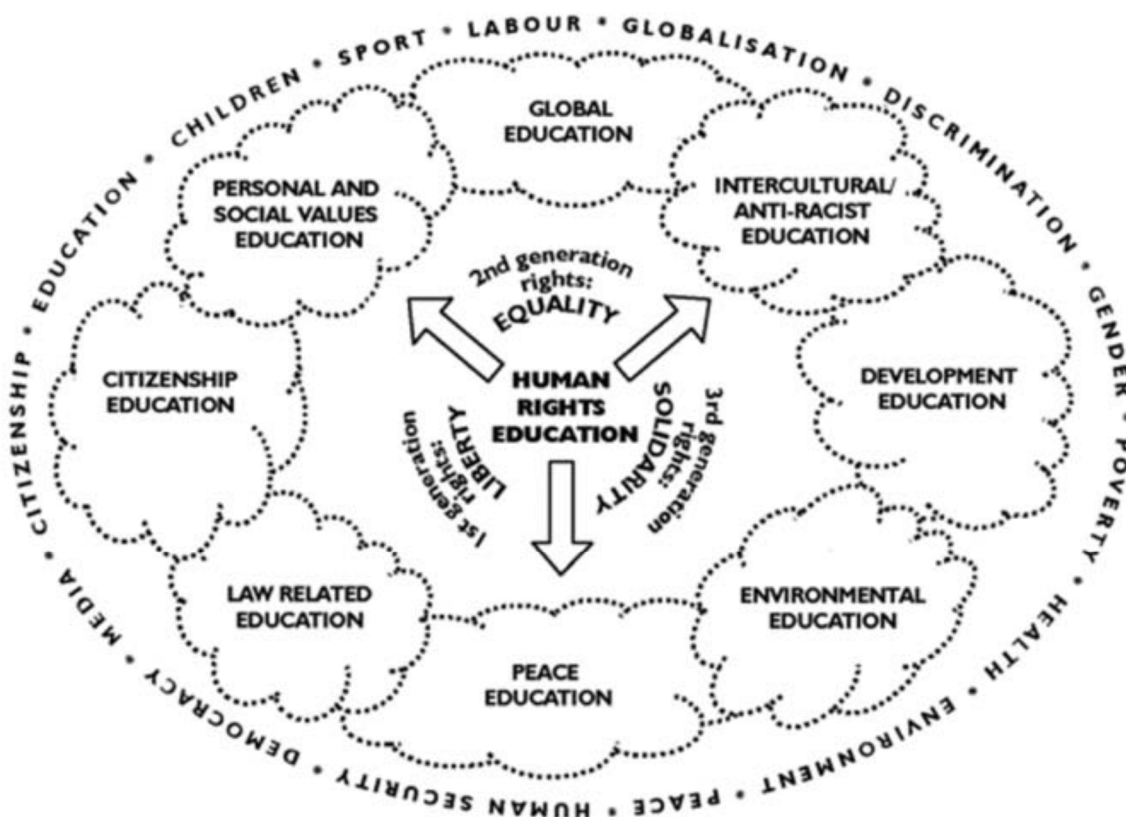


Figure 4. Types of human rights education. From the Council of Europe’s *Compassito Manual*, 2009, retrieved from <http://www.eycb.coe.int/compasito/pdf/Compasito%20EN.pdf> p. 30.

The goals of human rights education are threefold: cognitive, emotional, and action-oriented. These essentially refer to information and knowledge; awareness, feelings, and values; and skills and actions (Tibbitts, 2002; Zembylas, 2011). A further

distinction that has been made (Lohrenscheit, 2002) is between an emphasis on knowledge about human rights and an emphasis on developing skills for advocacy—learning *about* or *for* human rights. Bajaj (2011) asserts that human rights education programs generally seek to address global citizenship, coexistence, or transformative action. Human rights education for global citizenship “seeks to provide learners with membership to an international community through fostering knowledge and skills related to universal values and standards” (Bajaj, 2011, p. 489). Human rights education for coexistence relates to interpersonal or intergroup rights and is commonly used in times of strife. Human rights education for transformative action often targets persons who have little economic or political power (Bajaj, 2011, p. 490).

Human rights education may take the form of informal education which involves a life-long process by which an individual acquires related skills, attitudes, and knowledge through daily life. This may include reading the newspaper, discourse with others, or personal events that shape an individual. Human rights education may also be transmitted through formal education systems such as elementary and secondary schools and through “non-formal” education by which an individual participates in planned programs outside of formal education systems. This could include workshops, forums, or retreats.

Zemblyas (2011) warns of the dilemmas that can come from efforts to carry out human rights education in conflict or post-conflict settings which often focus on raising awareness that include an orientation toward the legal aspects of human rights and/or Eurocentric approaches that may not be optimal for all situations. He suggests for those

seeking transformation “a values and action-oriented approach, one grounded in non-discrimination, equality, solidarity and praxis” (Zemblyas, 2011, p. 577).

Human rights education seeks to promote global citizenship, positive coexistence, and advocacy. This is typically attempted through formal and non-formal methods in schools and in workshop type settings. Human rights education, like all of the peace education approaches, faces challenges inherent in conflict settings.

Disarmament education. The Simons Foundation (“Disarmament Education”, n.d., para. 1), a charitable organization based in Vancouver, Canada, with one arm of focus on nuclear disarmament education, asserts:

In an age where a world war involving nuclear weapons could eliminate the entire human species, disarmament education is a necessary and invaluable tool for change. The purpose of disarmament education is to raise awareness, both in educational institutions and the public realm, that we live in an era of military security that takes precedence over human security.

According to United Nations University Institute for Sustainability and Peace in Tokyo (2012, para. 1), disarmament and non-proliferation education involves “imparting the knowledge and skills to empower individuals to contribute, as national and world citizens, towards the achievement of general and complete disarmament under effective international control.” This forum asserts that this is critical for international security and sustainable world development.

From 2003-2005 the United Nations Department for Disarmament Affairs partnered with Hague Appeal for Peace to implement disarmament education programs in post-conflict Albania, Niger, Cambodia, and Peru. Teams were created to develop

culturally sensitive curricula with local educators and leaders. While specific methods varied among country teams, the overarching goals for the project were teacher training and the development of educational materials. The primary objectives were: “developing a local infrastructure for education and training, developing culturally competent educational materials for training teachers, administrators and community members, working directly with students to support a change in mindsets and attitudes about resolving conflict and the use of violence, especially gun violence” (Brion-Meisels, 2001, p. 82). Further goals included building local capacity including local alliances and coalitions for viability, inclusion of disarmament education in teacher and school curricula, provision of material infrastructure, and the provision of linkages to nongovernmental organizations in order to sustain programming. Outcomes of this project included the creation of materials, implementation of community events, development of peace and small arms media campaigns, increased knowledge of local traditions of peacemaking, improved conflict resolution skills, greater appreciation for diversity, higher quality conflict communication skills, condemnation of weapons, increased perceptions of the value of peace education, and stronger belief in one’s ability to make a difference in the interest of peace. One of the strengths of this project was the development of unique programs rather than use of a prescriptive program which made efforts more relevant in each of the regions. It is as yet unclear as to program viability over time. Another question not yet answered concerns the impact of future conflict on the resolve of the communities to maintain the programs.

Disarmament education seeks to raise awareness and promote advocacy. The basic tenet is that a reduction in arms will bring a reduction in violence. Through effective use of local knowledge and awareness disarmament education addresses overt conflict through empowerment.

Development education. Development education is defined by the World Bank as teaching to critically think about complex social, economic, and environmental issues of sustainable development affecting countries, regions, and the world (World Bank, 2001). This involves examination of critical links to development including human rights, security from violence, access to resources such as food and water, issues of post-colonial dependency, and aid. Globalization—worldwide interconnectedness of economic, environmental, and cultural systems and changes—has resulted in an increasing disparity between poor and the wealthy. Brock-Utne (2000, p. 134) calls for specific focus on globalization in development education:

In a globalized world, peace education must include the study of the growth of inequities between countries, between some of the so-called developing countries, between these countries and the industrialized countries and also within countries. Students should be taught how to gather statistics from international sources on conditions such as the distribution of food, calorie intake, and child mortality. They should also study their own societies, and the disparities in the different parts of the cities or countries they live in.

Other dimensions of developmental education include, but are not necessarily limited to, population growth, economic growth, climate change, pollution, global hunger, HIV/AIDS, international migration, and government corruption.

These dimensions might be seen as also falling into one of the following categories: disarmament education (addressing security), human rights education (addressing dependency, aid, government corruption, and access to medical care), and global education (addressing international migration, globalization, dependency,

resources, population growth, climate change, pollution, and aid). Again, these categories share goals and objectives illustrating the challenges associated with clear definitions of each (Figure 5).

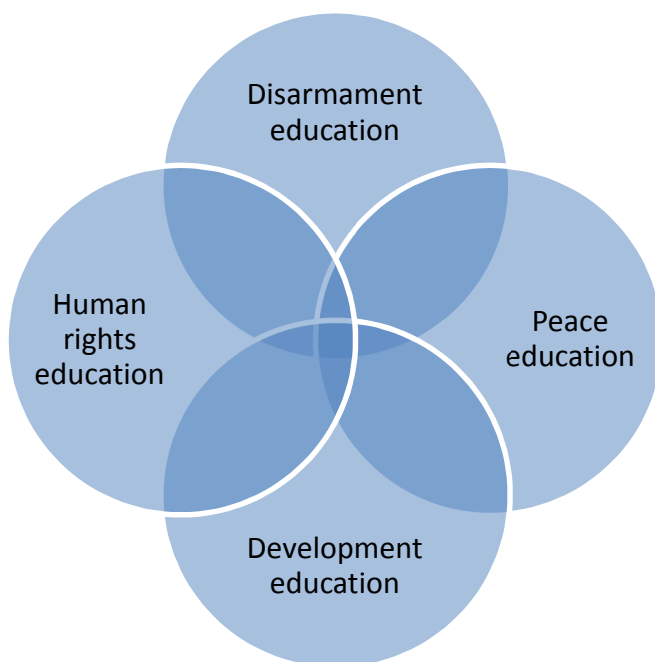


Figure 5. Relationship of dimensions of global education

Multicultural education, cooperative learning, constructive controversy and other tools of peace education. Traditional education systems do not encourage the peace agenda in several ways. First, students are taught patriotism and to accept national policies with very little in the way of critical thinking—students learn to ingest and regurgitate information. Second, textbooks and other curricular materials focus disproportionately on war and conflict history. Often war is glorified while conflict resolution and peacemaking discourse is absent. Third, reproduction theory asserts that “societies are economically, socially, and politically stratified, and that schools reproduce that stratification; so that schools, rather than ameliorating the class divisions which

cause structural violence, replicate and reinforce those divisions” (Harris, 1988, p. 27).

Lastly, the structure of schools creates peer competition and authoritarianism. Students in the traditional school setting compete for grades rather than collaborate and they learn to obey and accept orders without challenge. These factors perpetuate social injustice, violence, and create obstacles to creative problem-solving.

One tool for peace education is multicultural education which focuses on teaching practice. Banks (1997) argues that multicultural education is an idea, a reform movement, and a process:

As an idea, multicultural education seeks to create equal educational opportunities for all students, including those from different racial, ethnic, and social-class groups. Multicultural education tries to create equal educational opportunities for all students by changing the total school environment so that it will reflect the diverse cultures and groups within a society and within the nation's classrooms. Multicultural education is a process because its goals are ideals that teachers and administrators should constantly strive to achieve. (Banks, 2013, para. 1)

He identifies five dimensions of multicultural education which include content integration, the knowledge construction process, prejudice reduction, equity pedagogy, and an empowering school culture and social structure (Banks, 1995). Content integration involves teaching using examples and content from various cultures. The process of knowledge construction involves the way in which a teacher assists students in making meaning of content. Teachers assist students in reducing prejudice through activities and discussions that include the positive use of examples from various races,

cultures, or social differences. Equity pedagogy refers to the ways in which a teacher modifies instruction to accommodate for cultural differences within the classroom.

Finally, the attitudes of faculty and administration of the school, the academic content, assessment procedures, and the various teaching strategies employed come together to create an empowering school culture and social structure.

In order for young people to employ the conflict resolution skills necessary to live in a peaceful world, Deutsch (1993) argues that schools need to make fundamental changes. He holds that the competitive nature of schools is detrimental to efforts to create peaceful schools and an equitable world that peace education seeks to create. Cooperative learning is a manner of organization whereby students work in groups rather than individually. The idea is that individual efforts foster competition whereas working together teaches students to problem solve to reach common goals, capitalize on individual strengths, and to think critically. According to Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec (1986), there are five components of cooperative learning. The first is *positive interdependence* in which the students understand that they will succeed if the group succeeds. Also key to cooperative learning are *face-to-face interaction* and *individual accountability*. This essentially means that the students are together and each is working on the task and supporting the group. Students must have adequate *interpersonal and small group skills* and they must have time to *process*, or evaluate the effectiveness of their group. Research has consistently shown that students taught under the cooperative learning model (a) develop more skill in perspective taking and empathy; (b) develop greater self-esteem; (c) develop more positive attitudes to school; (d) develop greater commitment, helpfulness, and caring for others; and (e) frequently learn more (Deutsch,

1993, p. 511; Johnson & Johnson, 1983, 1986). All of these outcomes contribute to the development of skills that will bolster the peace education movement.

The use of constructive controversy is another method of teaching and learning that encourages the development of conflict resolution skills. According to the Johnson, Johnson, & Tjosvold (2000, p. 66):

Constructive controversy occurs when one person's ideas, information, conclusions, theories, and opinions are incompatible with those of another and the two seek to reach an agreement. Constructive controversies involve what Aristotle called *deliberate discourse* aimed at synthesizing novel solutions (*creative problem solving*).

When constructive controversy is utilized within a cooperative learning environment the results can include: positive feelings in discussing opposing positions; open-minded listening, motivation to hear, and better understanding of opposing positions; and better achievement of integrated positions (Johnson, Johnson, & Tjosvold, 2000, p. 70). In the classroom students engaging in constructive controversy research, learn, and prepare their position on a given topic. They present and advocate the position and engage in open discussions. The students then reverse the perspectives in which they identify the best elements of the opposing position. They then synthesize the positions and evaluate their functioning. Again the skills learned through the use of constructive controversy buttress peacekeeping, peacemaking, and peace-building goals and objectives of peace education.

Violence prevention education. Another critical element of peace education is in the prevention of violence. Again this practice is closely related to the other approaches, most obviously to disarmament education. While disarmament education focuses on

solutions to armed conflict, violence prevention education seeks to prevent violence from occurring in the first place. There are three types of violence to consider: structural, institutional, and behavioral. Galtung (1969) introduced the concept of structural violence as the deprivation of social and/or economic liberties. The resulting violence is often accepted because it can be difficult to recognize since it is embedded in the social structures that can harm or disadvantage individuals or groups. Institutional violence refers to violence that is prescribed by institutions. The apartheid system is one example whereby oppression of a certain group was maintained by policies and procedures accepting of violence. Behavioral violence encompasses wartime violence, intergroup acts of violence, as well as physical acts of violence by individuals. Violence addressed in schools most often falls into the behavioral category whereby the goal is to eliminate or reduce violence among and/or against students.

The roles of the institution—policies and laws as well as individual practice at the school level—and the role of structures of violence in the larger context may well have bearing on behavioral violence. For example, an impoverished community that results from decades of limited opportunities for its citizens stemming from formerly overt racist structures in society may experience more crime by community members. In a case such as this structural violence has influenced behavioral violence. Socioeconomic status as a predictor or risk factor for violent behavior has been examined by several researchers. The results of one large study indicated that an inverse relationship existed between social class and household income and the likelihood of the child—male or female—committing a violent act (Triplett & Jarjoura, 1997). Welsh, Stokes, & Greene (2000) found that poverty in the community surrounding a school was related to student

behavioral problems. It is important to bear in mind that there are a number of factors involved such that simply being poor does not lead to violence. Instead it is probable that intervening factors such as greater exposure to violence, social beliefs of parents and other adults, stress, alienation, etc. play a significant role. Englander (2003, p. 39) warns, “it is probably impossible to separate a child from the impact of his or social class; it impacts the child’s health, schooling, neighborhood, and family environment.” While low socioeconomic status may increase the risk of a child engaging in violence there is research that suggests that a well-functioning school environment can play a mitigating role (Welsh, 2000). This study found a weaker relationship between poverty and behavior problems in schools that were stable and operating effectively. This suggests that violence prevention involves not only teaching students the skills they need to refrain from engaging in violence but also that the climate of school be such that these skills can readily be used.

Harris & Morrison (2003) suggest that peace education addresses violence on three levels: peacekeeping, peace-building, and peacemaking. Peacekeeping is viewed as the creation of an “orderly learning climate” in schools (Harris & Morrison, 2003, p. 11). This relates to the stable and well-functioning schools referred to above. The primary charge of peace-building is to affect the underlying desire in students for a non-violent, socially just future. One example of this practice is the Peaceful Schools Movement which advocates for an integration of mindfulness exercises in schools in addition to training in conflict resolution (Lubelska, 2012). Teaching about nonviolent social change such as those led by Gandhi and Martin Luther King, Jr. is another method of instilling in students an appreciation for the vision of peace studies. Peacemaking is manifested in

various conflict resolution and management strategies including bullying prevention, peer mediation, development of negotiation and problem solving skills, anger management, and crisis intervention.

Violence prevention education seeks to address potential violence by establishing a climate conducive to peace and informing students about social justice issue and other themes of peace studies. Further it seeks to impart the skills that students need to resolve conflicts constructively.

Behavioral Violence Prevention in Schools

The previous discussion has set the overarching context from global education to peace education and its various dimensions including violence prevention. From violence prevention education the literature can be narrowed to the prevention of behavioral violence in schools (Figure 6). It is not uncommon for efforts to reduce violence at the school level to include strategies such as metal detectors, locked campuses, and the presence of law enforcement. These methods attempt to control violence externally through suppression. But there are a number of methods that seek to teach students the skills to resolve conflicts, express emotions, and learn to communicate more effectively. These methods are not aimed at suppression but constructive conflict resolution.

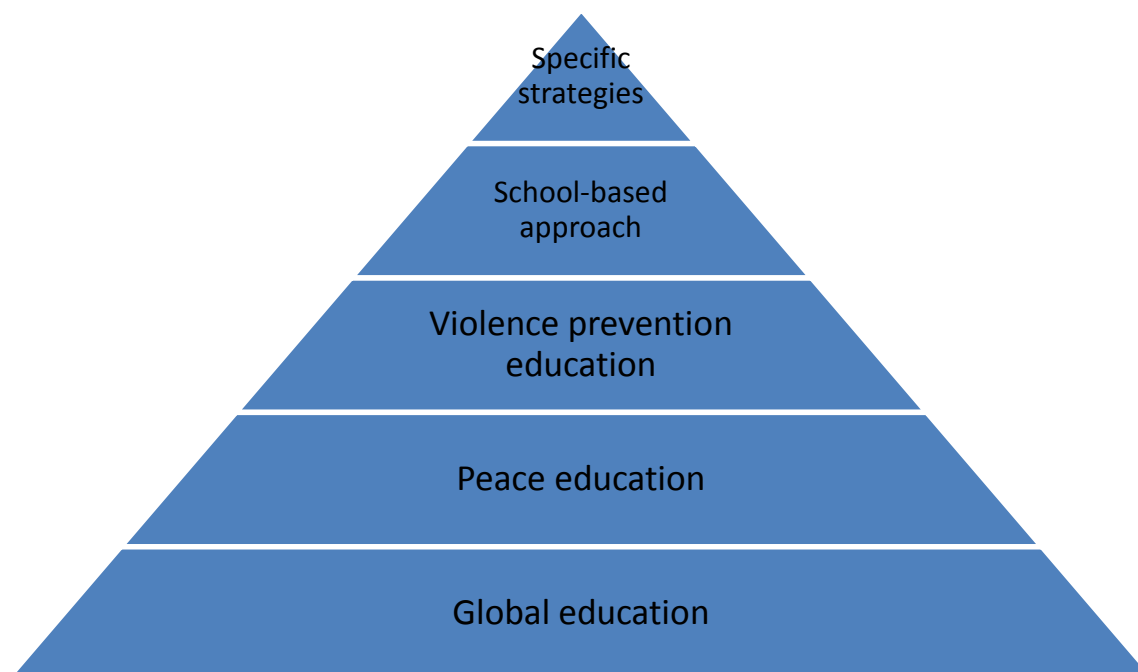


Figure 6. Context of current research

There is not absolute agreement in the literature about the necessary components or effectiveness of violence prevention strategies in schools. There is a great deal of variation in how strategies are employed, in what combinations they are utilized, target populations, and with what level of program fidelity. For example, Homer et al. (2009) examined the effects of school-wide positive behavior support (SWPBS) in elementary schools and suggested that improved use of SWPBS was functionally related to perceived safety in schools. This study examined perceptions of safety. On the other hand, a meta-analysis of 26 school-based violence prevention programs found that non-theory-based interventions, focused on at-risk and older children, and which employed intervention specialists were slightly more effective in reducing violence and aggression (Park-Higgerson, Perumean-Chaney, Bartolucci, Crimley, & Singh, 2008). Here the researchers were interested in behavioral outcomes. While there is currently little

information indicating the impact of other factors such as attitudes and behaviors of interventionists or the effect of other contextual issues within the school setting, there is promise in the effectiveness of violence prevention efforts.

Conflict. Theorists such as Deutsch (1973) and Bush & Folger (1994) provide understanding of conflict and options for its resolution as they apply generally to Western populations. Others describe characteristics of youth conflict (Asher & Chung, 1996; Garafalo, Siegel, & Laub, 1987; Johnson & Johnson, 1979; Laursen & Collins, 1994; Nickerson & Martens, 2008; Opatow, 1991; Vera, Shin, Montgomery, Mildner, & Speight, 2004). Johnson & Johnson (2009) conducted a meta-analysis of the literature which supports the benefits of intellectual conflict. Some research examines the disproportionality of exclusionary discipline practices (McLoughlin & Noltemeyer, 2010; Payne & Welch, 2010; Wallace, Goodkind, Wallace, & Bachman, 2008) which suggest that African American, Hispanic, and American Indian students are more likely to receive office disciplinary referrals (ODRs) and to be suspended and/or expelled than white or Asian students and that school racial composition is related to the type of disciplinary responses used by schools. These general areas of focus describe conflict and outcome dynamics and are useful in the development of rationale for and creation of specific programming for schools.

Comprehensive approach. Given the complexity of global systems and the inevitable conflicts that result, it is the desire of many peace educators to give young people not only math and reading skills in school, but also a broad conceptualization of peace that includes obstacles and drivers to its achievement. A key piece of this

pedagogy involves teaching youth the skills to manage interpersonal and group conflicts nonviolently.

The fields of peace education and conflict resolution are challenged to optimize curricula to ensure that there are opportunities for both academic and social learning in our institutions. The literature suggests five areas of violence prevention in schools that are widely utilized: bullying prevention, conflict resolution, peer mediation, anger management, and crisis intervention. These areas seek to address violence both preventatively by imparting the knowledge to foster attitudinal development such as tolerance and empathy, and responsively by teaching the skills to manage conflict and crisis without the use of violence. Campbell (2003); Daunic, Miller, Robinson, & Smith (2000); Erickson, Mattiani, & McGuire (2004); Johnson & Johnson (2005); Lantieri (1995); Peterson & Skiba (2001); and Smith, Cousins, & Stewart (2005) provide insight into components of violence prevention programs including, but not limited to, instruction in negotiation strategies, community involvement, peer mediation, common goal setting, and bullying prevention. These approaches to violence prevention are often employed singly, as “stand-alone” programs. Sometimes however, a more comprehensive approach is utilized in which multiple approaches are implemented in a school. Because the approaches address conflict through different lenses, the use of multiple programs is considered more comprehensive and thus better able to prevent violence through the establishment of tolerant attitudes, problem solving skills, and nonviolent responses to conflict.

The manifestation of aggression in children suggests a need for multiple approaches to violence prevention, such that efforts to mitigate it should be

developmentally appropriate. Socialization is a process of internalizing rules and values which begins in very early childhood. Before this internalizing begins to take place, children do not typically attempt to cause harm intentionally and they do understand that aggression can hurt others. Once the rules are internalized and that understanding of harm develops then aggression can become intentional. Englander (2003, p. 91) defines violence as “aggressive behavior with the intent to cause physical or psychological harm.” Often in early childhood aggression is utilized to obtain tangibles that the individual desires but this instrumental aggression decreases as they get older and move toward middle childhood. It is during this time that hostile aggression begins to increase in which the goal of the aggressor is to harm (Atkins, Stoff, Osborne, & Brown, 1993). To address instrumental aggression schools seek to teach students to “use their words.” Negotiation strategies, problem solving, and positive communication skills are common features of conflict resolution lessons and peer mediation programs. Hostile aggression can be addressed through bullying prevention, anger management, and peer mediation curricula which highlight themes of tolerance, empathy development, perspective taking, and nonviolent methods of conflict management and expression of emotions.

The use of multiple modalities can effectively teach the skills to manage conflict and emotions but it can also create a climate of student support and empowerment. This can create an attachment to school that may serve to assuage propensities toward violence to which factors outside of the school have contributed. Attachment, or the bond of a child to his or her caregiver, has been inversely associated with aggression and social behavior in children in numerous studies (Denham, 1994; Eberly & Montemayor, 1999; Lyons-Ruth, Alpern & Repacholi, 1993; Rodriguez & Tucker, 2011; Troy and Sroufe,

1987). However one study found that while this was true for Latino youth it was not for African American boys (Walker, Maxson, & Newcomb, 2007). Children who experience violence as witnesses or victims may have a more difficult time forming healthy attachments to caregivers (Chapple 2003, Cicchetti & Olsen, 1990; Harper, Arias, & House, 2003). One study found that students who reported higher levels of attachment to school were less likely to engage in violent delinquency (Frey, Ruchkin, Martin, & Schwab-Stone, 2008). The researchers suggest that it would be beneficial for the purpose of reducing violence to determine the factors that promote school attachment in adolescents. Heydenberk & Heyendberk (2007) assert that a sense of psychological and physical safety in the school environment as well as success in school results in greater attachment to school. They argue that comprehensive conflict resolution education programs can provide both security and improved student performance. Given that comprehensive programs may have certain advantages over stand-alone programs it is important to look at each more carefully to understand its contribution.

Strategies in the literature. While there are a number of inquiries concerning violence prevention in schools generally, there is also a great deal in the literature specific to method or strategy. These methods of violence prevention include bullying prevention, conflict resolution, peer mediation, nonviolent response to conflict, and crisis intervention. Anger management and crisis intervention differ from strategies such as bullying prevention, conflict resolution, and peer mediation in their praxis. While bullying prevention, conflict resolution, and peer mediation focus on attitudes such as tolerance and the skills and knowledge to problem solve, anger management and crisis intervention seek to intervene when emotions prevent or inhibit the use of these skills.

Table 1 illustrates the differences in the strategies based on three elements. The target area conveys the primary focus of the method. While each of the methods addresses both, this indicates where each strategy's strength lies. Intensity/emotion involves the types of conflict best managed by the strategy. The change agent refers to the population that would be expected to engage in the targeted component in order to prevent violence. With each of the delineations there is overlap such that skills taught in conflict resolution and peer mediation can be used in high intensity conflict but will be used *most often* in low to moderate intensity situations.

Table 1
Strategy Comparison

	Target area	Intensity/emotion	Change agent
Bullying prevention	Perceptions	Lower	Students & teachers
Conflict resolution	Skills	Lower	Students
Peer mediation	Skills	Lower	Students
Anger management	Perceptions	Higher	Students
Crisis intervention	Skills	Higher	Teachers

Examinations of general programming and specific programming explore characteristics and outcomes using a variety of methods. Brener, Krug, Dahlberg, & Powell (1997) examined school nurses logs in assessing a school-based violence prevention program, while Breunlin, Cimmarusti, Bryant-Edwards, & Hetherington (2002) looked at suspension rates to determine how CRE affected violent behavior. The Multisite Violence Prevention Project (2009) examined victimization and aggression resulting from a violence prevention curriculum and combination treatment and found that the universal curriculum decreased victimization but increased aggression. On the

other hand, the universal curriculum in combination with a selective intervention involving the family decreased aggression but had no effect on victimization. A similar project by the same group in 2008 examined the impact upon social-cognitive factors associated with aggression and nonviolent behavior. It was suggested by the study that high risk adolescents benefited more than those deemed lower risk. Finally, Harris & Walton (2009) qualitatively analyzed narratives about conflict written by children and found that students who wrote about using communication in conflict contained very low levels of violence and more indicators of attentiveness to others' internal states whereas students who reported retaliation contained more violence and fewer indicators of perspective taking. Turnuklu, Kacmaz, Guler, Kalender, & Zengin (2009), Turnuklu, Kacmaz, Gurler, Sevkin, & Burcak (2010), and Turnuklu, Kacmaz, Gurler, Turk, & Kalender (2010) studied the outcomes of a conflict resolution and peer mediation program in Turkey. Results indicated that empathy in boys was increased, aggression was decreased, and integrative/constructive conflict resolution skills were improved following the treatment program. Given the variability in methodology and context, assessments of "success" should be made with great caution. Further these evaluations were conducted in situations where one or more element of programming was present. It is important to examine each program separately to identify strengths and challenges.

Bullying prevention. One of the most recognizable violence prevention strategies is bullying prevention. Public outcry following widely reported suicides of bullying victims has resulted in implementation of bullying prevention programs throughout the world. There is not a great deal of data on the prevalence of bullying over generations however Ilola & Sourander (2013) found an increase in bullying among girls in Finland

and a decrease in bullying among boys from 1989 through 2005. The various classes of bullying and victimization, mental/emotional dimensions of bullying, bystander dynamics, teacher/school influence, and the outcomes of specific programs are areas commonly addressed in the literature.

In examination of victimization in bullying situations four subgroups emerged in one study that used latent class analysis (Bettencourt & Farrell, 2013). These groups include non-victimized aggressors (sometimes referred to as perpetrators), aggressive-victims (or perpetrator-victims), victims, and well-adjusted youth (uninvolved). Because beliefs and perceptions differ among groups, this research suggests the development of preventive interventions that target these groups specifically. Types of bullying and victimization were identified also through latent class analysis by Bradshaw, Waasdorp, & O'Brennan (2013). The classes included (a) verbal and physical, (b) verbal and relational, (c) high verbal, physical, and relational, and (d) low victimization/normative. Cyberbullying is a more recent phenomenon that has been addressed. Sticca & Perren (2013) found that cyberbullying is not necessarily worse than traditional bullying but it is the public and anonymous nature that causes the most distress to victims. Hinduja & Patchin (2013) found that perpetrators are more likely to engage in cyberbullying if they perceive that they will not be punished and that peers are engaging in bullying as well. Researchers have examined bullying against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and questioning youth (Kopels & Pacey, 2012) and those targeted related to their body type or weight (Puhl, Peterson, & Luedicke 2013; Wilson, Viswanathan, Rousson, & Bouvet, 2013). Bullying victimization among special education students has also been found to

be significant (Chen and Schwartz 2012, Son, Parish, & Peterson, 2012; Swearer, Wang, Maag, Siebecker, & Frerichs, 2012).

Some researchers (Bauman, Toomey, & Walker, 2013; Undheim, 2013) have associated victimization to later suicidal ideation especially when combined with depression. These findings suggest that bullying prevention efforts include a suicide prevention component. The impact of anxiety in bullying has also been examined. Isolan, Salum, Osowski, Zottis, & Manfro (2013) found that victims and perpetrator-victims had higher anxiety scores than bullies or those not involved in bullying at all. Yen, Huang, Kim, Wang, & Tang (2013) found that victims of verbal/relational and physical bullying had higher levels of reported anxiety than non-victims. These results also indicated that perpetrator-victims had higher levels of reported anxiety than victims or perpetrators. Yang, Stewart, Kim, Kim, & Shin (2013) found that depressive symptoms were associated with male perpetrators and victims of bullying. They also discovered that low academic achievement and lower self-esteem were associated with cyberbullying victims and perpetrators. Cyberbullies also had greater anxiety symptoms. These results suggest that anxiety and depression in adolescents involved in bullying situations should be evaluated and intervention should take the various levels of association into account. Better understanding of the manner in which anxiety, depression, and self-esteem are linked to bullying is warranted.

Bullying does not only affect victims but may lead to lower academic performance of the whole school. Cornell, Huang, & Fan (2013) found that increases in student and teacher reports of teasing and bullying resulted in significant increases in dropout rates. Another study examined academic performance and bullying and revealed

that even among non-bullied students' academic performance decreased with increased levels of bullying at the school (Strom, Thoresen, Wentzel-Larsen, & Dyb, 2013). Often bullying prevention programming focuses on the role of the bystander. Given that all students are stakeholders this tack seems appropriate. Why do peers choose to intervene in bullying situations? Thornberg, Tenenbaum, Varjas, Meyers, & Jungert (2012) identified five themes: (a) interpretation of harm in the bullying situation, (b) emotional reactions, (c) social evaluating, (d) moral evaluating, and (e) intervention self-efficacy. Researchers have found that males are more likely to intervene if there are few perpetrators in one's in-group (Espelage, Green, & Polanin, 2012). This finding supports another (Cappadocia, Pepler, Cummings, & Craig, 2012) that suggests that among boys empathy and attitudes about bullying are the determining factors in bystander intervention. This study found that a higher sense of social self-efficacy predicts bystander intervention among girls. Another study (Turetsky, 2013) provides more data on the positive association between self-efficacy and self-esteem and bystander intervention. These findings call for intervention that includes for the entire school not just those involved in bullying incidents that addresses self-esteem, empathy/perspective-taking, as well as social skill development.

While the previously discussed research focuses on students there is a body of literature that investigates the school structures, including climate and staff roles, in bullying prevention. The relationship between classroom factors and bullying was examined recently (Salmivalli & Veten, 2004; Scholte, Sentse, & Granic, 2010) and revealed a significant relationship between classroom factors such as attitudes toward bullying and individual bullying behavior. There are data that suggest that bullying

increases when teachers view bullying as normative and therefore are less likely to intervene (Hektner & Swenson, 2012). Further, peers were less likely to intervene when teachers believed that victims should assert themselves. Aceves, Hinshaw, Mendonze-Denton, & Page-Gould (2010) investigated the conditions under which students are likely to seek help from teachers. They found that students are more likely to seek help from teachers who they perceive as effective and fair in resolving conflicts. While students may not always immediately turn to a teacher either because they are not in close enough proximity or choose not to for any of various reasons, the authors explain the advantage of having effective teachers available after the fact:

Although turning to a teacher who is in close proximity may not always be an immediate option, perceiving teachers as effective for dealing with conflicts may prevent retaliatory aggression well after the victimization has taken place. In this sense, positive perceptions of teachers' abilities to manage conflicts can make the difference between a victimized student who goes home, evaluates the incident, and turns to teachers for help the following day, as opposed to one who returns to school with a weapon to retaliate (Aceves et al., 2010, p. 666).

Gregory, Cornell, Fan, Sheras, & Shih (2010) found that environments with greater structure and support in high schools decreased bullying and victimization. School-level indicators of disorganization have been found to be positively correlated bullying behavior (Bradshaw, Sawyer, & O'Brennan, 2009) while less disordered schools had stronger associations between objective and perceived risk of discipline (Apel, Pogarsky, & Bates, 2008). Others (Elsaesser, Gorman-Smith, & Henry, 2012) found that it is an individual's belief and perception of the school environment that are related to relational

aggression but not necessarily to physical aggression. These findings suggest that school-wide climate has an effect on the incidence of bullying such that more orderly environments with a lower acceptance of aggression results in a lower risk of bullying behavior. Acceptance or rejection of violence by administrators and teachers is therefore an important feature in schools' efforts to reduce bullying.

Of the bullying prevention programs available to schools, perhaps the most recognized is the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program (OBPP). There have been several studies examining the efficacy of OBPP (Limber 2004, Limber, Nation, Tracy, Melton & Flerx, 2004; Olweus, 2005; Soberg & Olweus, 2003). One large study implemented OBPP in over 100 schools. Data were collected after 1 to 2 years of program implementation and revealed reductions in student self-reports of bullying others, and improvements in student perceptions of adults' responsiveness, and students' attitudes about bullying (Schroeder et al., 2012). These researchers recommend the implementation of OBPP in conjunction with community coalitions. More recently, Purugulla (2013) examined OBPP and found that while the program did increase bullying awareness it did not decrease bullying incidences. Further, bullying related discipline increased and teachers reported that the program did not impact the climate of the school. The level of administrator support for the program is questionable in this particular study which may point to its importance in program implementation. KiVa is a bullying prevention program developed and utilized in Finland. Multiple researchers (Karna, Voeten, Little, Alanen, Poskiparta & Salmivalli, 2011, 2013; Salmivalli, Karna, & Poskiparta, 2011; Williford, Noland, Little, Karna, & Salmivalli, 2012) have examined the effectiveness of this program and found a decrease in bullying victimization most

markedly in grades 1 through 6, decrease in anxiety and depression, and positive effects on perceptions of school climate and student achievement. Second Step is a middle school program aimed at decreasing peer aggression, victimization, homophobic name calling, and sexual violence. Examination of its effects revealed a decrease in physical aggression but no change in the other target behaviors (Espelage, Low, Polanin, & Brown, 2013). WebQuest is a cyberbullying prevention program that was studied in Taiwan (Lee, Zi-Pei, Svanstrom, & Dlal, 2013). Findings included a decrease in student intentions to cyberbully, an increase in knowledge about cyberbullying, but no impact on student attitudes toward cyberbullying. While there is a significant body of research in bullying prevention the mixed results suggest that the success of a particular program is dependent on many factors. For example, Low et al. (2013) evaluated student engagement in a one year implementation of a bullying prevention program. Results suggested that engagement is influenced by the percentage of students receiving free/reduced lunch at the school, and the classroom climate. Higher levels of engagement were related to lower levels of school bullying issues, improvement in school climate, and attitudes less accepting of bullying. Further examination of program fidelity, level of community and family involvement, student engagement, staff and administrator support, the role of discipline, and the various dimensions of student population are warranted.

Conflict resolution. Conflict resolution education is sometimes seen as encompassing a number of different strategies often including peer mediation. Campbell (2003, p. 148) explains the difference between conflict resolution and peer mediation in schools:

Conflict-resolution training refers to instruction that focuses on teaching strategies for managing interpersonal conflict more constructively. Alternatively, peer mediation refers specifically to the practice of training students to act as neutral facilitators in the resolution process with their peers.

While they are related, peer mediation is a very specific type of program. Conflict resolution on the other hand has at its core teaching students that (a) conflict is normal and expected, (b) differences between individuals and groups are valuable, (c) conflict can lead to positive change, and (d) by building on conflicting parties' strengths win/win outcomes are possible (Bodine & Crawford 1998, p. 47). Dimensions of importance include perceptions, emotions, and communication. In addition, problem solving methods are taught and practiced in conflict resolution training for students.

Evaluation and examination of specific conflict resolution programs comprise another category of literature. Thus far, many studies indicate that the effects of particular conflict resolution programs are promising (Aber, Brown, Chaudry, Jones, & Samples, 1996; Bell, Raczynski, & Home 2010; Bosworth, Espelage, DuBay, Dahlberg, & Daytner, 1996; Brener, Krug, Dahlberg, & Powell, 1997; Edmondson & Hoover, 2008; Farrell & Meyer, 1997; Goldsworthy, Schwartz, Barab, & Landa, 2007; Johnson & Johnson, 1996; Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, & Acikgoz, 1994; Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, & Magnuson, 1995; Johnson, Johnson, Dudley, Mitchell, & Fredickson, 1997; Schellenberg, Parks-Savage, & Reh fuss, 2007; Simon et al., 2009; Stevahn, Johnson, Johnson, & Schultz, 2002). Different research evaluates programs in very specific ways. For example, Johnson et al. (1997) implemented the "Teaching Students to be Peacemakers" program to middle school students. Results revealed that students *learned*

the negotiation steps. This study did not, however, examine whether or not students actually *used* the steps. Resolving Conflict Creatively Program (RCCP) has been found to decrease students' hostile views of the world (Aber et al., 1996). Some of the literature focuses on specific CR skill sets (Gentry & Benenson, 1993; Smith, Daunic, Miller, & Robinson, 2002) such as the ability to transfer skills to other settings, while others have examined the developmental impact of CRE (Aber, Brown, & Jones, 2003; Fast, Fanelli, & Salen, 2003; VanSlyck, Stern, & Zak-Place, 1996). For example, Aber et al. (2003) found that use of the Resolving Conflicts Creatively Program (RCCP) with its peer mediation component increased positive social-emotional development. Another examination of RCCP in New Orleans (Garibaldi, Blanchard, & Brooks, 1996) found that the program positively impacted teachers' perceptions of their ability to address problems. More recently conflict resolution research has examined components of programming. For example White, Wertheim, Freeman, & Trinder (2013) looked at the core team model in which a professional learning team received training in the form of workshops and shared content with the school staff who then implemented the program with students. This model was found to effectively teach students the understanding and use of cooperative methods of conflict resolution. Another study (Latipun, Nasir, Zainah, & Khairudin, 2012) examined conflict resolution focused counseling in promoting peaceful behavior in Indonesia. Peaceful behavior was conceptualized as nonviolence and hostility, conflict resolution strategies, and peaceful friendship. Implementation of the program resulted in higher levels of peaceful behavior than in those without access to the program. Shin (2010) studied the interactional practices of teachers in the implementation of a program designed to develop peaceful problem solving and conflict

resolution skills. Literte (2011) conducted a case study which revealed the promise of conflict resolution and peace-building programs to proactively ease racial tensions. The results of many of these studies cannot be generalized to other populations so that the promising results often found must be accepted tentatively. Also because many conflict resolution programs contain elements of other strategies such as peer mediation it is important to consider all facets of programming and the intervening effects of any overlap.

Peer mediation. Peer mediation programs are often part of comprehensive violence prevention programs, particularly in middle and high schools. It is not uncommon however for schools to implement peer mediation as a stand-alone program. A peer mediator is a neutral third party who assists individuals in conflict through the mediation process by setting the rules and guiding the discussion to ensure that it is a safe place for problem solving. Peer mediators are taught and supported by trained staff in the school. Hale & Nix (1997) examined the training needs of peer mediators and found that concepts of neutrality, silencing, and creative problem solving can be problematic. As a result peer mediators must engage in ongoing training and evaluation (Calbreath & Crews, 2011; Humphries, 1999).

The process of mediation begins with an introduction to the process which may include a review of the expectations for respectful communication and assurances of confidentiality. Disputants are given the opportunity to share their perception of the conflict and the peer mediator serves to paraphrase and clarify. The peer mediator encourages the parties to discuss potential solutions and may guide the discussion by asking questions about pros and cons of each idea. Because both parties have a stake in

the outcome, practicable solutions are more likely. The RCCP program as a comprehensive model utilizes peer mediation as one component. Linda Lantieri, co-founder of RCCP, is an advocate for peer mediation because it “not only allows for parties to reach resolution, which is about coming to an agreement, but it also allows for the possibility of reconciliation—salvaging and often strengthening relationships” (Lantieri & Patti, 1996, p. 140).

In determining the success of peer mediation different approaches have been utilized. Some researchers (Cigainero, 2009; Fast et al., 2003; Schellenberg, 2005; Schellenberg et al., 2007; Smith et al., 2002) examined the reduction in violence or aggression to determine positive results of peer mediation programs. Some research (Bogner, Slavadore, & Manley, 2008; O’Farrell, 2010) suggests that peer mediation impacts academic achievement in schools. Many looked at not only behavioral outcomes but knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions. Schellenberg et al. (2007) looked to student knowledge and reports of successfully mediated conflicts in evaluating one peer mediation program. They found a significant reduction of out of school suspension over the five year implementation period. Further, results suggested that peer mediators learned and retained the knowledge of conflict resolution and mediation and reported that the skills were valuable to them. One study (Cigainero, 2009) examined how peer mediation impacted negative behaviors such as tardiness, absenteeism, truancy, and classroom distractions. The results indicated that the peer mediation program had a positive effect on reducing negative behaviors as well as school violence. Smith et al. (2002) examined a conflict resolution and peer mediation program over four years and found that while the program did not impact school climate there was a decreasing trend

in discipline incidents in two of the three participating schools. This study also found that mediated solutions frequently consisted of agreeing to avoid each other or agreeing to stop the problem behavior. While these types of solutions are not relationship oriented, results also indicated that as the students' developmental level increases so did the focus on relationship in reaching resolution. Johnson et al. (1995) found that peer mediation training had a significant impact on the conflict strategies that students used and the resulting outcomes. Prior to being trained in peer mediation students were largely goal oriented in their conflict behavior selecting forcing or withdrawing strategies. Following training, however, those children trained became relationship oriented whereby they opted for strategies such as negotiating and smoothing. Another important finding of this research was that children who received the training generalized the skills to conflict at home. Fast et al. (2006) examined the impact of peer mediation on both aggressive and nonaggressive seventh grade students. They found that while measures of self-concept showed improvement there was no indication of reduced aggression or impulsivity. Some research indicates particular benefits for the peer mediator. Turnuklu (2011) examined the experiences of high school peer mediators and found improved self-confidence and self-esteem; more highly developed conflict resolution and empathy skills; fewer interpersonal conflicts; and improved peer relationships. Others (O'Farrell, 2010; Vanayan, 1996) also found increased self-esteem, confidence, and empathy skills among mediators.

Given the potential of peer mediation it is important to understand drivers and obstacles to such programs. Theberge & Karan (2004) qualitatively examined one peer

mediation program at a junior high school and identified a number of factors that may inhibit the use of peer mediation including:

- Students' attitudes, feelings, and behaviors regarding mediation including distrust of the process, preference for autonomous problem solving, and concern for perceptions of peers;
- students' methods of dealing with conflict such as ignoring, reliance on friends, or acceptance of aggression;
- students' attitudes, feelings, and behavior in school including power imbalances, lack of respect for each other, and chronic negative behaviors.
- School climate which may involve faculty conflict behaviors, lack of respect for the students, weak bonds between adults and students, concerns for safety, overcrowding, and discipline orientation of the school;
- structure and organization of the program in which there is a lack of understanding, resources, diversity in program participants, and systematic training; and
- societal issues including the expanding role of the schools in student socialization and incongruent values in the larger communities.

Theberge & Karan's study lacked one crucial element. While the faculty stated that they supported the program, they had no training and thus were unable to model skills and did not "encourage mediation to resolve conflicts" (Theberge & Karan, 2004, p. 287).

Supporting the need for this requirement, Greenwald & Johnson (1986) found that faculty must support and encourage school mediation for it to be successful. Humphries (1999) conducted observations of and interviews with peer mediators in grades 4, 5, and 6.

Many peer mediators reported interpersonal problems such as losing friends, being teased about being a mediator, or feelings of loyalty that could disrupt the process. Through improvement in the understanding and support of peer mediation programs these issues

may be mitigated. Sellman (2011, p. 45) suggests that success may rely on transformations that include “the production of new cultural tools that promote new ways of thinking, speaking and acting with regard to conflict.” This supports the call for comprehensive programs to ensure that violence is addressed from multiple angles.

Anger management. Anger is a natural emotion that often triggers the fight or flight response. When not managed effectively anger can lead to aggression. Often in schools students are expected to suppress their emotions which can build if a student does not have well developed coping skills. The results can be explosive. It is important to look at student violence at the personal and social levels in order to effectively address it. At the personal level aggression and violence are learned responses to frustration and a method of reaching goals. At the social level there is often “a breakdown in social capital” as a result of family disruption, increased exposure to crime, and other related factors (Schmidt, 1993, p. 25). Violence may be reactive or emotional in which an individual responds violently to emotions such as frustration, fear, or perceptions of being violated. Cognitive-behavior theories, which posit that it is the angry and aggressive thoughts that lead to violent behavior, may inform this type of violent behavior. Violence and aggression may also be instrumental in which an individual uses violence to achieve goals. Social learning theory holds that this type of behavior is learned and maintained through observation. In an effort to reduce the aggression associated with poor anger management schools can implement anger management training to address both types of aggression by teaching students new patterns of thinking as well as pro-social skills.

Some schools elect to teach anger management to targeted groups or individuals. In many schools these lessons are delivered by the school psychologist (Flanagan, Allen,

& Henry, 2010) but may also be conducted by the school guidance counselor, social worker, or behavior specialist. These lessons may take the form of individual or group counseling sessions or without the counseling component as part of social skills training. Alternatively, schools may include elements of anger management in comprehensive, school-wide violence prevention programs.

While delivery may vary considerably there are common components. These include:

- Understanding of a variety of emotions including what they are called and how they can be recognized;
- recognition of the physical changes associated with anger such as rapid or pounding heartbeat, heavy breathing, a warming sensation in body, a feeling of tightness in chest or stomach, muscle tension, and/or sweating;
- identification of personal triggers which may include perceptions of being violated either physically or emotionally, receiving direction from authority, or experiencing frustration;
- learning the various styles of anger expression; and
- learning appropriate methods of dealing with anger such as constructive use of words, perspective taking, and strategies for remaining calm such as counting, breathing exercises, use of physical activity, etc.

In their meta-analysis of the efficacy of anger management programs in schools

Candelaria, Fedewa, & Ahn (2012) found the following categories of content:

- Coping skills training such as the In Control Program designed to teach coping-skills to adolescents;
- emotional awareness and self-control such as the strategies used in the SCARE program;

- problem solving cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT) such as using strategies from the Second Step violence prevention program designed to teach anger-related problem solving skills;
- relaxation techniques such as deep breathing exercises; and
- role playing or modeling activities involving acting out scenarios with the professionals implementing the intervention.

In evaluating the effectiveness of anger management programs four meta-analyses have been conducted with some variation in results. Sukholdsky, Kassinove, & Gorman (2004) evaluated 40 articles and determined an overall effect size of 0.67 and Ho, Carter, & Stephenson (2010) found an effect size of 0.61 among the 18 studies include in their analysis. Smaller effect sizes resulted from the meta-analyses of Gansle (2005) and Candelaria et al. (2012) which were small to moderate (0.31 and -0.27 respectively). Candelaria et al. found that externalizing behaviors were most positively affected including a reduction in aggressive behavior and student reports of anger. The effect was similar regardless of the focus of the program. The only exception was role playing as the sole intervention which was found to be ineffective. Other studies (Lipman et al., 2006; Lochman & Wells, 2003) have shown that role playing combined with other strategies or used as a supplement is effective. Among students with emotional/behavioral disorders the use of an anger management program that involved the use of anger logs resulted in an increase in pro-social skills in interactions with the teacher and a decrease in both negative behaviors with peers and aggressive incidents (Kellner, Bry, & Salvador, 2008). Other studies (Bundy, McWhirter, & McWhirter, 2011; Hall, Rushing, & Owens, 2009) have supported the use of specific programs and boosters to decrease discipline referrals and maintain results. The work of Burt, Patel, &

Lewis (2012) suggests that the development of leadership skills and relational competencies can have a positive effect on anger. While these results are promising it is important to note that the characteristics of the programs evaluated are quite different. Taken together with the potential variation in delivery and target population conclusions should be drawn cautiously. More research is needed to more clearly understand the manner in which the variables interact to produce a result.

Crisis intervention. With a growing student population identified with emotional and behavior disabilities, autism spectrum disorders, traumatic brain injury, and health conditions that impact behavior such as attention deficit disorders, serious behavior incidents in school have increased. In addition, aggressive behaviors associated with gang and criminal activity among students is not uncommon in middle and high schools. These issues have required schools to develop plans and train staff to manage potentially dangerous student behavior. Colvin (2004) has identified a cycle of behavior that provides the model for many school efforts at managing serious student behavior (Figure 7).

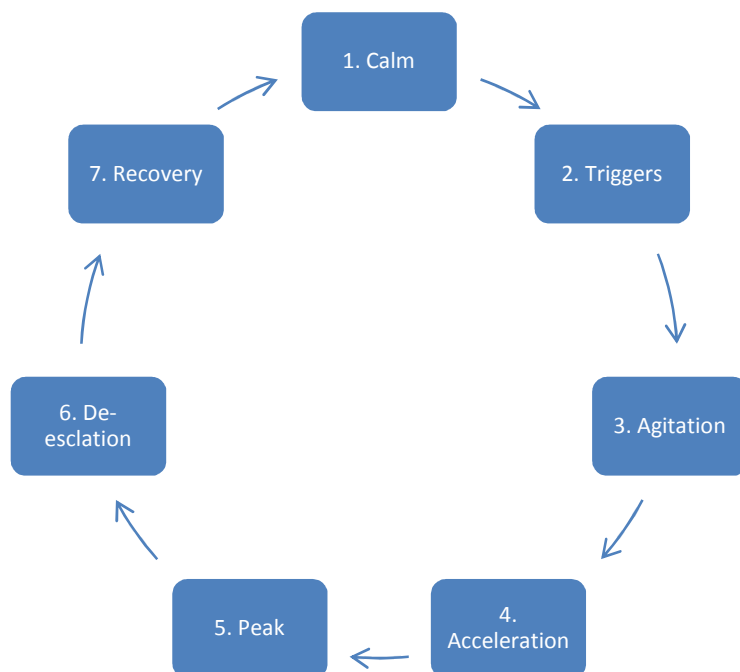


Figure 7. Seven phase model of acting-out behavior. Adapted from “Managing the Cycle of Acting-Out Behavior in the Classroom,” by G.Colvin, 2004, Eugene, OR: Behavior Associates.

During the calm phase the student is cooperative and behavior is acceptable. Triggers are setting events, or antecedents. These may be related to the school setting or they may involve issues outside of school. These may be relational, such as an argument with a parent, or physiological, such as being hungry, not having enough sleep, or changes in medication regimens. During the agitation phase there is often a noticeable change in behavior. The student may experience anxiety and appear unfocused or non-directed. The acceleration phase may involve the student become more focused and directed in behavior. This may take the form of arguing, provoking, questioning, defiance, avoidance, crying, or intimidation tactics. It is during this phase that staff can often get tangled in negative responses that escalate the student’s behavior. It is during the peak phase that the student’s behavior may involve physical aggression, self abuse, or

destruction of property. As the student de-escalates he or she may experience confusion, withdrawal, or avoidance. There may also be efforts at reconciliation. Lastly, the student becomes calm and subdued. Colvin (2004, pp. 150-151) provides a summary that is very useful for crisis intervention training (Table 2). Teachers learn that it is during the first four stages in which teaching and prevention techniques are the focus while the last three stages involves a focus on safety, crisis management, re-entry, and follow-up procedures (Colvin, 2004, p. 43.)

Table 2

Summary for Acting-Out Behavior Cycle

	Overall behavior	Teacher cue
Phase 1. Calm	Cooperative	On-task, follows rules, responsive to praise, goal oriented.
Phase 2. Triggers	Involving a series of unresolved problems	School based—conflict, change in routine, peer provocation, frustration, facing correction Nonschool-based—high needs home, health problems, nutrition needs, inadequate sleep, dual diagnoses, substance abuse, gangs and/or deviant peer groups, compound triggers
Phase 3. Agitation	Unfocused and distracted	Darting eyes, busy hands, moving in and out of groups, off-task/on-task cycle, staring into space, veiled eyes, nonconversational language, contained hands, withdrawal
Phase 4. Acceleration	Staff-engaging leading to further negative interactions	Questioning/arguing, noncompliance/defiance, off-task, provocation of others, rule violation, whining/crying, avoidance/escape, threats/intimidation, verbal abuse, property destruction
Phase 5. Peak	Out of control	Serious property destruction, physical attacks, self-abuse, severe tantrums, elopement
Phase 6. De-escalation	Confusion and lack of focus	Confusion, reconciliation, withdrawal, denial, blaming, responsiveness to directions and/or mechanical tasks, avoidance of discussion and/or debriefing
Phase 7. Recovery	Eagerness for busy work and reluctance to interact	Eagerness for independent activity, subdued in group work and/or class discussions, defensive behavior

Note. From “Managing the Cycle of Acting-Out Behavior in the Classroom,” by G. Colvin, 2004, Eugene, OR: Behavior Associates, pp. 150-151.

Training in crisis intervention seeks to give teachers the tools and skills that they need to intervene at each of the phases of an incident. A major piece of this involves recognizing student behavior at each of the stages of escalation. Knowing the student and his or her triggers allows the teacher to recognize potential problems and to combat becoming a setting event. Teachers learn to be supportive and calm, and to set limits. Teacher training often addresses both verbal and nonverbal skills necessary to de-escalate potentially dangerous situations. The Crisis Prevention Institute (2009) is one organization that provides training to school districts that includes specific behaviors staff learns to utilize. This organization recommends ten tips to practitioners of crisis intervention:

1. **Be empathic.** Try not to judge or discount the feelings of others. Whether or not you think their feelings are justified, those feelings are real to the other person. Pay attention to them.
2. **Clarify messages.** Listen for the person's real message. What are the feelings behind the facts? Ask reflective questions and use both silence and restatements
3. **Respect personal space.** Stand at least 1.5 to 3 feet from an acting-out person. Invading personal space tends to increase the individual's anxiety and may lead to acting-out behavior
4. **Be aware of your body position.** Standing eye-to-eye and toe-to-toe with a person in your charge sends a challenging message. Standing one leg-length away and at an angle off to the side is less likely to escalate the individual.
5. **Ignore challenging questions.** When a person in your charge challenges your authority or a facility policy, redirect the individual's attention to the issue at hand. Answering challenging questions often results in a power struggle.
6. **Permit verbal venting when possible.** Allow the individual to release as much energy as possible by venting verbally. If you cannot allow this, state directives and reasonable limits during lulls in the venting process.
7. **Set and enforce reasonable limits.** If the person becomes belligerent, defensive, or disruptive, state limits and directives clearly and concisely. When setting limits, offer choices and consequences to the acting-out individual.

8. **Keep your nonverbal cues nonthreatening.** The more an individual loses control, the less that individual listens to your actual words. More attention is paid to your nonverbal communication. Be aware of your gestures, facial expressions, movements, and tone of voice.
9. **Avoid overreacting.** Remain calm, rational, and professional. Your response will directly affect the person's behavior.
10. **Use physical techniques only as a last resort.** Use the least restrictive method of intervention possible. Physical techniques should be used only when individuals are a danger to themselves or others. Physical interventions should be used only by competent/trained staff.

These represent the areas that are addressed in teacher training using this method. While the use of physical restraint is sometimes a component of crisis intervention training, many crisis intervention training courses for teachers focus on prevention, crisis antecedents, and de-escalation. Often schools will maintain trained crisis teams who are called upon when de-escalation efforts are ineffective in a particular situation.

While there are a number of articles that describe the components of various crisis intervention programs (Bickel, 2010; Johannpeter & Forbringer, 2011; West & Kaniok, 2009) or makes suggestions for schools (James, Logan, & Davis, 2011; Moriarty, 2009) there is limited research on the outcomes of these programs in schools. At this point, research in the area of crisis intervention in schools suggests that training teachers is an effective way to prevent physical restraint (George, 2000; Miller, George, & Fogt, 2005; Miller, Hunt, & George, 2006). One study (Ryan, Peterson, Tetreault, & Vander Hagen, 2007) examined the incident reports of a Kindergarten through grade 12 at a school for students with behavior issues. Staff members were trained in de-escalation strategies and results indicated a significant decrease in seclusion time-outs in the year following the training. Another (Ramin, 2011) examined a specific program and found that its use did

reduce violence but also that it should be used as part of a school-wide comprehensive violence prevention approach. In addition to improving student outcomes, teachers have been found to have changed attitudes and perceptions following training. For example, Forthun & McCombie (2011) found that training decreased negative attribution that teachers had attached to families. Trained teachers had an increased desire to assist a student in crisis and decreased negative emotional reactions. Further, this study found that there was a decrease in student behavioral referrals. Another study (Walsh, 2010) assessed teachers' feelings of self-efficacy in dealing with violence. Results indicated that teachers reported feeling more calm, consistent, proactive, confident, and effective in response to student defiant violence. The results of these studies suggest that crisis intervention may be an effective element in schools' efforts to prevent violence. It appears as though there is a need for additional research that would indicate more precisely how crisis intervention as a response to potentially dangerous behavior fits in with strategies designed to prevent these situations from occurring at all.

The literature involving behavioral violence prevention in schools addresses conflict in a general manner, comprehensive approaches, as well as the examination of specific approaches. Bullying prevention research is broad and varied. Researchers have examined the impact of bullying on individuals and the community and the characteristics of differing types of bullying, victims, perpetrators, and bystanders. Issues of comorbidity, the role of teachers and school climate, and the outcomes of specific programs implemented to prevent bullying have been addressed. Conflict resolution, peer mediation, and anger management are approaches whose research bases include the examination of specific program success. Success is conceptualized by behavioral,

attitudinal, and knowledge outcomes among students and other stakeholders. Crisis intervention literature is most heavily focused on the content and components of training programs. In spite of the wealth of research on specific approaches, the variability in methodology, content, audience, and implementation leave unanswered questions concerning intervening factors and the obstacles and drivers affecting implementation.

Theory and Variable Development

In order to achieve the goals of violence prevention education we must find ways to effectively teach conflict resolution skills and embed them in other content areas. We will rely heavily on teachers to explicitly educate as well as to create climates that support the learning and use of CR skills, nonviolent responses to conflict, and attitudes of tolerance. Therefore we must understand what impacts teacher practice. Questions such as, *“Does teaching experience affect perceptions of violence prevention approaches?”* and *“How do experience and training affect these perceptions?”* gave birth to this particular project through the subsequent investigation of decision-making processes, theories of self-efficacy, research in CRE, program fidelity, and teacher perceptions and beliefs. The result of these preliminary activities is this study which was based on both theory and research. The two primary theories that provided the framework from which this project developed are rational choice and self-efficacy. These theories provided the lens through which one might understand why teacher perceptions and beliefs are important in improving the field of conflict resolution in education. Because an effective practice of teaching violence prevention skills to youth

falls largely under the care of teachers, it is valuable to understand the forces that impact teacher decision-making.

Rational choice theory clarifies how perceptions and beliefs of external factors influence an individual's choice making behavior. In this case it suggests that teachers will opt to adopt CRE programming when benefits are perceived to outweigh costs. Bandura's theory of self-efficacy further clarifies choice-making behavior by addressing internal factors that affect choices—specifically the level of confidence that an individual possesses in taking successful action in a given situation. Taken together, the theories essentially suggest that a teacher will weigh the costs and value of expected outcomes of utilizing a CRE program. If that teacher believes that the program is valuable (outweighing the costs of implementation), and believes that he or she can successfully implement it, then the likelihood of use of the program is increased. It is from these theories that the dependent variables—perceptions of outcome value, efficacy expectation, and outcome expectation—and independent variables were derived.

Rational choice theory, outcome value, and independent variables. One assumption of this research is that when making decisions, individuals seek the greatest benefit and/or the least cost. The ability to make such assessments (cost-benefit analysis) assumes that humans are, at least to some degree, rational agents. Rational choice theory—as modified by the concept of bounded rationality—and theories of hypothetical thinking provide the framework for understanding how implicit and explicit thinking systems interact in analysis and “rational” decision-making. As a traditional theory, rational choice theory developed largely in the field of economics while theories of

thinking developed from the contributions of numerous fields to cognitive sciences. Both are rooted in the development of models and hypothetical experimentation.

Bounded rationality, as described by Simon (1982), asserts that people make rational decisions only to the extent that they are cognitively able to process the relevant information. Simon states that “the bounds are the bounds on knowledge, bounds on calculation, multiple objectives, or competing objectives” (Simon in an interview with Augier, 2001, p. 272). Without knowledge, one cannot fully consider options. This supports the notion that teachers must be adequately trained and oriented to violence prevention approaches. However, teachers are often overwhelmed by demands on instructional time and academic accountability. Many CRE programs require extensive training and they may be perceived by educators as just one more “objective.” Furthermore, CRE may be viewed as an objective that is in competition with other academic responsibilities. As a result, an educator’s ability to consider the benefits of CRE may be limited by the costs associated with multiple demands.

Friedrichs and Opp (2002, p. 410) extend the concept of bounded rationality to include “the avoidance of information search costs.” They suggest that not only are decision makers restricted by Simon’s bounds but also by habit. Experience creates a pool of knowledge from which one may readily and swiftly draw in making choices. Rather than spending time and energy thinking through potential options that may actually have a more optimal outcome, one simply relies on the “tried and true.” Experienced educators will have a sizable pool of past knowledge from which they make everyday decisions in classroom and conflict management and they may then be reticent to expend the required energy in seeking alternatives. Here one might inquire, “Do

demographic and background variables such as teaching assignment, certification area, gender, etc. impact the value that an individual places on violence prevention?”

Theory of self-efficacy, efficacy expectation, and outcome expectation

variables. Augier and Kreiner (2000, p. 662) remind us that “...choice does not merely depend on ‘objective’ conditions, but also on the ‘internal nature’ of decision makers.” How an individual frames “objective” conditions and the problem at hand is largely due to factors unique to the individual (e.g. temperament, personal experience, etc.). Also impacting action are beliefs of self-efficacy. Bandura’s (1977, p. 212) social cognitive theory proposed that “people process, weigh, and integrate diverse sources of information concerning their capability, and they regulate their choice behavior and effort expenditure accordingly.” These sources of information come from personal performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states. Of these sources, performance accomplishments tend to make the greatest impact on beliefs of self-efficacy—successes increasing expectations of efficacy and failures decreasing expectations of efficacy (Bandura, 1977, p. 195). Performance accomplishment simply means that an individual engages in a behavior and produces a positive outcome. For example, a teacher intervenes in a student conflict diffusing a near physical altercation.

Vicarious experience refers to watching others successfully model behavior.

Applying this to teachers and violence prevention approaches it might look like a teacher observing another teacher managing peer conflict in the classroom. While this may be helpful in learning skills, it has a lesser effect on an individual’s beliefs of personal ability to take the same action.

Verbal persuasion—or being told what to expect—can be helpful in conjunction with other sources of information in increasing expectations of efficacy. Teacher training may be viewed as a type of verbal persuasion. The idea then is that while training is necessary it may be insufficient alone in developing beliefs of competence in managing school violence.

Further, beliefs of self-efficacy impact choice of what goals to work toward, the level of effort and perseverance put forward in their attainment, and how much stress one experiences as a result of the consideration of particular actions or behaviors associated with the goals (Bandura, 1986, 1989). Those who feel confident in their abilities to manage specific situations, or in successfully engaging in activities toward a desired outcome will be more likely to set successively more challenging goals, put more effort forward in reaching them, be more resilient to setbacks in these efforts, and experience less emotional distress in the process. Smith, Kass, Rotunda, & Schneider (2006) showed that failure, on the other hand, can lead to task-specific beliefs of lowered self-efficacy which may result in poor performance.

Self-efficacy is not the only factor involved in decision making, however. Incentives to execute an action are also at play. For example, one may believe that they possess the ability to successfully take action but they may not value the outcome sufficiently for them to do so. That the outcome is valuable then is incentive to take action. The value of outcome and the certainty of success work side by side (Figure 8) such that self-percepts of efficacy do not necessarily reflect outcome expectancy. Outcome expectancy concerns an individual's "estimate that a given behavior will lead to

a certain outcome (Bandura, 1977, p. 193).” Here one might ask, “*What are teachers’ expectations about prevention measure outcomes?*”

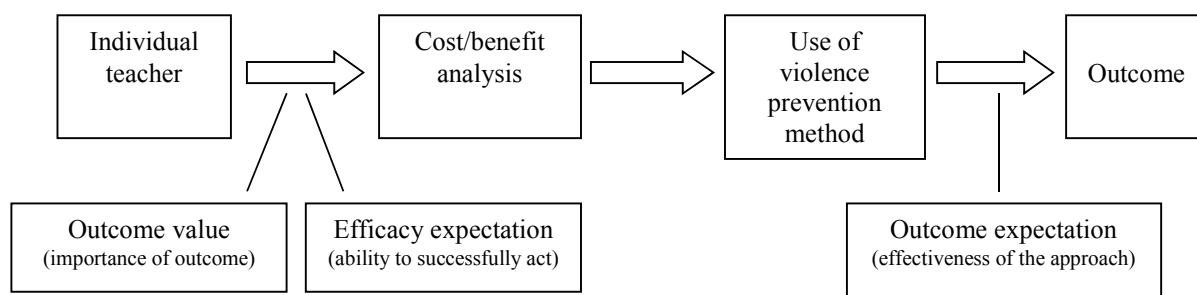


Figure 8. Connection between efficacy and outcome expectations. Adapted from Bandura, 1977, p. 193.

Efficacy expectation, on the other hand, involves the “conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcome” (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). For example, a teacher might believe that certain violence prevention approaches are effective and valuable, but may not be confident in his or her ability to carry them out. Without this belief of self-efficacy the teacher is less likely to initiate with effort the actions associated with use of certain violence prevention approaches and to persevere when the approaches do not produce immediate and perfect results. The question that is raised is “*What are teachers’ beliefs regarding their abilities to use violence prevention measures effectively?*”

Rational choice and self-efficacy provided the framework for this research. Concepts of self-efficacy are important to this project in that teachers must have confidence in their abilities in using and teaching violence prevention approaches if they are expected to put forward great effort and persistence. Understanding the skills through

training alone may not be enough to establish a high sense of self-efficacy particularly if an approach does not produce immediate positive outcomes. Since performance achievements are considered to be the most effective at developing a strong sense of self-efficacy, teaching experience combined with training may have a significant impact on self-efficacy in use of violence prevention approaches. Rational choice and related theories informed this study in that they suggest that actions taken are based at least partly on cost/benefit analysis. This may be related to outcome expectations since individuals assess the costs and benefits in terms of what is expected to occur following actions. If teachers do not believe certain violence prevention approaches to be effective then they are less likely to utilize them. By examining efficacy and outcome expectations, direction for future research into how to optimize training in violence prevention approaches may be revealed. That is, by exploring the relationships between efficacy and outcome expectations in the context of teacher beliefs, potential needs for opportunities to increase activities aimed at building teacher confidence and/or building stronger cases for the efficacy of CRE approaches may be identified.

It is important to examine the value of nonviolence education and because intervention program implementation is largely the responsibility of teachers, it is crucial to understand what is necessary and why it is necessary to garner commitment to it. Rational choice theory and self-efficacy theory suggest that cost/benefit analyses and confidence are important components of making a choice to adopt and implement violence prevention programs in the classroom. These concepts provided the conceptual framework including the provision of variables from which pursuit of relevant research springs. Thus examination of violence prevention literature to determine its potential

value, studies in the role of program adherence (sometimes referred to as treatment integrity or fidelity), and research focused on the impact of the educator will be reviewed.

Research Questions

Research suggests that violence prevention approaches are a valuable tool in teaching students interpersonal problem-solving skills and social responsibility. We have learned that specific programs can result in specific outcomes. Data indicate that the implementation of one or more approaches holds promise toward achievement of the goals of peace educators. Given that these programs have such potential the next step is to examine how teacher practice impacts the success of any effort. Further guiding our inquiry, the research suggests that teacher practice is influenced by perceptions.

Teacher practice. Working backward from outcome (Figure 9), practice must be examined. Teacher burnout, efficacy, and classroom management have been suggested as linked to student problem behavior (Allen, 2010; Pas, Bradshaw, Hershfeltdt, & Leaf, 2010). Another element of teacher practice maybe overlooked. McIntyre, Gresham, DiGennaro, & Reed (2007) reviewed educational research and found that treatment integrity—or fidelity to a prescribed program—is not often addressed. This argument is supported by Lane, Bocian, MacMillan, & Gresham (2004). Some (Gresham, Gansle, & Noelle, 1993) hold that when treatment integrity is compromised so then is the validity of the research. In addition, some research suggests that treatment integrity is closely related to positive outcomes (Biggs, Vernberg, Twemlow, Fonagy, & Dill, 2008; DiGennaro, Martens, & Kleinmann, 2007; DiGennaro, Martens, & MacIntyre, 2005; Gresham, 1989; Hirschstein, Van Schoiack Edstrom, Frey, Snell, & MacKenzie, 2007;

Wilder, Atwell, & Wine, 2006). For example, Hirschstein et al. (2007) found that teachers who adhered to an anti-bullying program increased the rating that peers gave to one another in their helpfulness in bullying situations. Further, teachers who not only taught the curriculum but showed their commitment through support saw a decrease in aggression among their students. At the same time, some research indicates little or no correlation in this regard (Stevens, Van Oost, & Bourdeaudjuij, 2001; Toffalo, 2000). Stevens et al. (2001) found that moderate levels of implementation of an anti-bullying intervention resulted in moderate behavioral changes among primary students but no changes in secondary students. Pereplechikova & Kazdin (2005) suggest several reasons for the ambiguity including problems with self-reporting and issues with *positive* as well as negative deviations from a treatment that would impact the results.

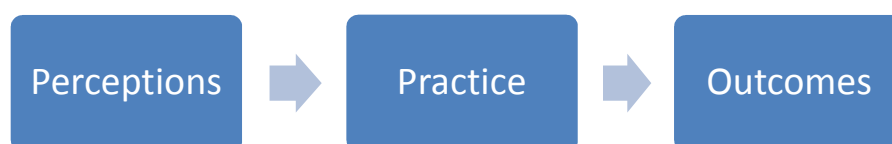


Figure 9. Categories of relevant research

Teacher perceptions. Working back further still, we might inquire about what impacts fidelity to programs. Some researchers have examined factors inhibiting program fidelity. Ringwalt et al. (2003, p. 375) found that increased fidelity to a substance use prevention program was “positively associated with beliefs concerning the effectiveness of their training and the curricula they taught.” Therefore the perceived effectiveness of the program affected the teacher’s manner of delivery. Melde, Esbensen,

& Tusinski (2006) suggest that time and behavioral issues interact with program fidelity. Lentz, Allen, & Ehrhardt (1996) hold that social validity is a factor in treatment integrity. Sterling-Turner & Watson's (2002) analog research found no relationship between treatment acceptability and treatment integrity but they acknowledged weaknesses in their study that may contribute to these results.

Much of the above discussed literature supports the idea that program fidelity is important in obtaining desired effects of violence prevention practices and is vital in evaluating a program's effectiveness. As mentioned, Ringwalt et al. (2003) revealed an association between teacher beliefs and treatment integrity. Self-efficacy theory suggests that one element of belief is outcome expectation. Understanding its impact on behavioral motivation, some literature examines expectation of outcomes in terms of identifying factors that can change such beliefs (Dang, 2009; Maughan, 2009; Niedergauser & Perkmen, 2010). Other researchers have suggested that teacher dispositions and epistemological frames impact teacher practice (Baxter-Magolda, 1992; Ostorga, 2006; Schraw & Olafson 2002; Thornton, 2006). Yoon (2004) found that teacher perceptions of bullying are linked to behavioral decisions to intervene in bullying situations. Other studies (Battistich, Solomon, Kim, Watson, & Schaps, 1995; Goodenow, 1993; Solomon, Watson, Battistich, Schaps, & Delucchi, 1992) examined school climate and community. Generally, positive relationships were noted between warm, supportive school communities and motivation, achievement, and pro-social behavior. Examination of conflict management styles of teachers and students found that perceptions of conflict impacted the style of conflict management (Longaretti & Wilson,

2006). Bell (2002) found that teachers' perceptions and instructional practice were related to race/ethnicity.

Examination of perceptions may raise further questions and shift our inquiry backwards further yet. What influences these perceptions? Teacher training appears to be a key factor in teacher perceptions of programs. Indeed Dang (2009) and Maughan (2009) found that increases in practice and skill-based training affected outcome expectation. Vestal & Jones (2004) found that increases in teacher training resulted in an increase of interpersonal problem solving skills in their students. Training type has been shown to impact program fidelity. Sterling-Turner, Watson, Wilmon, Watkins, & Little (2001) found that direct models of teacher training resulted in greater adherence than indirect models. Alvarez (2007) and McCaleb, Andersen, & Hueston (2008) yielded study results that also highlight the value of teacher training in dealing with violence in schools. Given that a number of variables impact teachers on an individual basis, the following questions develop:

RQ1a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to demographic variables?

RQ1b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to background variables (i.e. training and teaching history)?

RQ2a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of CRE related to demographic variables?

RQ2b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of CRE related to background variables (i.e. training and teaching history)?

Beliefs of self-efficacy have been shown to be positively associated with student achievement (Althausen, 2010; Domsch, 2009; Jimison, 2010) therefore identifying methods for increasing such perceptions is a worthwhile endeavor. Some have found that

competency-based student teaching increases pre-service teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy (Gunning & Mensah, 2011; Okrasinski, 2010) while others suggest that self-reflection can aid teachers in identifying and resolving internal obstacles to self-efficacy (Smith, 2010) which can in turn improve job satisfaction (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). One study by Kandakai and King (2002b) found that pre-service teachers who received CRE training felt more confident in their abilities. Given the important role of self-efficacy in choice behavior and the impact of experience and training on beliefs of self-efficacy the following research questions arise:

RQ3: In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in using violence prevention measures related to demographic variables?

RQ4: In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in using violence prevention measures related to background variables?

Self-efficacy theory suggests that outcome and performance expectations are different. Further, perceived value plays a role. Expectancy-value theory springs from self-efficacy theory and sheds light on this element of the equation. One research project linked expectancy, efficacy, and value in identifying motivations of a group of college students in civic engagement (Gaeke, 2009). Some have found that value and self-efficacy are associated in choice behavior (Choi, Fiszdon, & Medalia, 2010; Kumar & Pavithra, 2012; Spencer-Cavaliere, Dunn, & Watkinson, 2009). A greater sense of outcome value has been shown to impact behavior by increasing motivation (Kumar & Pavithra, 2012; Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, Lens, & DeWitte, 2010) in the classroom and among professionals seeking employment. In terms of teachers one might expect that highly valuing specific practices and expected outcomes along with a sense of confidence in one's abilities would produce great motivation to engage in the practice.

Further one might expect training and experience to impact each of these three inter-related elements. Interestingly, one study (Kandakai & King, 2002a) found that pre-service teachers who received training violence prevention were more likely believe that CRE was less valuable while those with little or no training tended to value CRE more highly. These results beg further examination. That there is no teaching experience among the participants may impact not only the teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy but also their perception of value of the prevention program. Taking into consideration self-efficacy theory and the above discussion of the value of performance accomplishments in establishing confidence in ability, would similar results be seen with experienced and trained teachers? What of other factors that impact perceptions? From the work of these researchers more questions arise:

RQ5: In what ways is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to demographic variables?

RQ6: In what ways is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to background variables?

Waugh & Godfrey (1995) suggest that teacher receptivity to new programs may be related to perceived costs and benefits, perceived practicality, level of administrative support, and feelings toward the previous system. While research indicates that factors such as training and social validity impact program fidelity and that perception of costs, benefits, and practicality may be obstacles to implementing new programs in schools, there seems to be a gap in the literature. The literature indicates that teacher perceptions and beliefs are important but there is currently no connection made to understand if and how perceptions and beliefs of violence prevention approaches are related to variables such as training, experience, and self-efficacy. Exploration of how teachers perceive

various violence prevention approaches and their abilities to utilize them effectively may provide the opportunity to improve teacher training and the conditions under which CRE and other violence prevention approaches may flourish.

Past Methodology

The investigation into teacher behavior and perceptions has been addressed through both qualitative and quantitative methods, each with its strengths and weaknesses. Longaretti & Wilson (2006) utilized interviews and observations in their examination of the impact of perceptions on conflict management. The use of a small sample was designed to reveal the perspectives of the participants through in-depth exploration. The primary problem with such a sample size is the limitation in generalizing findings.

Kandakai & King (2002a, 2002b), on the other hand, undertook quantitative studies to examine pre-service teachers' beliefs about violence prevention training and self-efficacy. A standardized questionnaire was administered to nearly 900 education students in their final seminars. The data were analyzed using Chi-square analysis, one-way analysis of variance, and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Survey research is often strong in reliability and these particular studies are no exception having employed various techniques to ensure stability and internal reliability. Survey research, however, is vulnerable to issues of response set bias and self-reporting.

Another study (Waugh & Godfrey, 1995) used a mixed method design. A survey was administered to teachers in 22 schools in one district in Australia to reveal receptivity to change. The survey included Likert-type responses and open-ended questions for

written response regarding attitudes. Data from the Likert-type responses were reported as total percentages responding to each end of the response choice spectrum. Written responses were categorized according to the variables and many were reported verbatim. This particular study's use of the mixed method design revealed some discrepancies between the qualitative and quantitative responses regarding the same variables. While responses to the Likert-type questions revealed strong negativity to one variable, the qualitative responses to the same variable were far less so. In this way the instrument was capable of alerting to internal problems. This illustrates the ability of mixed methods to ensure construct validity. As with any research whose sample is regionally bound, the data cannot be reliably generalized to school populations outside of Perth.

Examination of teacher perceptions can be accomplished through various methods using a variety of instruments. Survey research is strong in its ability to reach a large sample of a population resulting in much data. Quantitative analysis of survey data may be utilized for exploratory and hypotheses testing endeavors. Alternatively, qualitative methods may produce a richer data set since responses to queries are not limited by the researchers. This may be a preferred approach when examining a concept in depth.

Chapter III: Methodology

This research project was a quantitative design utilizing a survey developed and tested by previous research. This design was selected due to its ability to collect data from a large sample for the purpose of exploring teacher perceptions. The goals of the research were to identify potential relationships between independent and dependent variables that may impact teachers' choice behavior as related to violence prevention approaches and curriculum. Participants from two school districts in central Florida were surveyed utilizing an instrument designed to address specific variables in answering the research questions.

Participants

Teachers of two school districts in central Florida were sampled. Therefore, the unit of analysis was individuals currently employed districts A and B teaching grades Kindergarten through 12. The inclusion of teachers of all grade levels was for the purpose of obtaining a variety of experiences with violence prevention approaches and training, and differentiating how these experiences may relate to perceptions of violence prevention approaches. District A and B were selected due to their size and policies regarding CRE and other prevention programs. District A employed over 25,000 faculty, staff, and administrators in order to serve more than 180,000 kindergarten through grade 12 students with 139 elementary, 43 middle, and 25 high schools. All schools in District A had peer mediation programs. District B served almost 104,000 Kindergarten through grade 12 students. There were over 17,000 full time faculty, staff, and administrators

employed in the district. District B offered training in violence prevention, peer mediation, character development, and bullying prevention. As with many other districts in Florida these programs were not mandated by the district but may have been selected for use by schools. Access to these populations was obtained from the research and assessment departments of both districts through the submission and acceptance of research proposal applications.

The sample size was determined by population size, confidence level, precision—or confidence interval—and variability (Figure 10). Variability refers to the variance of the population. The less variable the population is, the smaller the necessary sample. For the purposes of this project the variability is set at 0.05—high variability—as a conservative estimate. There were a total of 15,938 teachers employed in both districts for the academic year 2009-2010. With a confidence interval of 5%, a confidence level of 95% (95% certainty that the true percentages fall within $\pm 5\%$ of results), 399 responses were required. The total sample number was 409 with 194 from District A and 214 from District B.

$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$ <p>Where: n = sample size N = population size e = the level of precision</p> <p>This formula assumes a degree of variability (i.e. proportion) of 0.5 and a confidence level of 95%.</p>	$n = \frac{15,938}{1 + 15,938(.05)^2}$ $n = \frac{15,938}{39.9}$ $n = 399$
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Figure 10. Sample size calculation based on Yamane's (1967) formula

Process

This exploratory research project was quantitative whereby a correlational survey with Likert-type responses was utilized to address the research questions. The correlational survey falls at the low end of the interventionist spectrum. It was intended to examine relationships between variables using non-experimental design. Punch (1998, p. 69) states “the correlational survey looks upwards or backwards, from the dependent variable to the independent variable...” The central question of this research concerned how teachers perceive violence prevention approaches and self-efficacy in utilizing them, thus the project “looked backwards” from the effect (the dependent variables) to explore potential precursors (the independent variables) by uncovering relationships between the variables. It is important to note that this correlational design does not seek to show *cause*, rather to reveal relationships.

An example of survey research in education is the Equality of Educational Opportunity Study, also known as the "Coleman Study" (Coleman et al., 1966). In order to evaluate equal educational opportunities following the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare sponsored this research. Surveys were utilized to assess the attitudes and goals of students, teachers, and administrators. These data were analyzed along with demographic data. This renowned work revealed that socioeconomic factors impact academic achievement more strongly than the quality of a school.

Survey research has the ability to collect large amounts of data for analysis in a relatively short period of time. However, it can be vulnerable to problems associated with responses aimed at pleasing others. This can be minimized by taking steps to

increase anonymity. Further, survey research outcomes can be affected by poor sampling and questioning. Ensuring a large enough random sample and testing the instrument can mitigate these issues.

The data required to answer the research questions were derived from the following variables: (a) demographic items; (b) background items, including teaching and training experience; and (c) teacher beliefs including those regarding the value of the outcomes of violence prevention approaches, the effectiveness of violence prevention approaches, and confidence in utilizing them. The variables were broken down into indicators about which survey items were composed (see “Instrumentation” section below).

This design allowed for the analysis of ordinal and nominal values of the independent variables against ordinal values of the dependent variables. All independent variables were compared to all dependent variables.

Instrumentation and Variables

Data were collected via a survey instrument (see appendix) developed by Drs. Keith A. King and Tina L. Kandakai of University of Cincinnati and Kent State University respectively (2002b) and an additional item from a related survey authored by the same researchers (2002a). The survey was developed using Bandura’s model of self-efficacy. The survey utilized here was essentially comprised of five subscales: demographics, teacher background, outcome value, efficacy expectation, and outcome expectation (Table 3) utilizing Likert-type responses to various items within the subscales. Outcome value, efficacy expectation, and outcome expectation subscales were

tested for use in the Kandakai & King studies (2002a, 2002b). Independent variables include demographic and background information. There were seven demographic items which include age, school district, highest degree earned, sex, race/ethnicity, Title I status of school, and teaching certification. The background items numbered four and included years teaching, exposure to violence at school, training type, and training amount. These differed from the Kandakai & King survey in three ways. First, school location (urban, suburban, and rural) was altered to “district” since the two districts are different primarily in how CRE is utilized rather than in density of population. Second, the original survey asked respondents to estimate the racial composition of their schools. For the purpose of this project socio-economic status was examined by inquiring about the Title I status of the respondents’ schools instead. Lastly, because this project was focused on experienced teachers who have likely had more exposure to student violence and conflict behavior an item in the original survey asking respondents whether they had ever referred students for violent behavior was eliminated.

Table 3
Variable, Subscale, and Item Identification

Independent variables		Dependent variables and factors	
I. <u>Demographics</u> a. Age b. Sex c. Race/ethnicity	II. <u>Background</u> a. Degree b. Years teaching c. District d. Title I status e. Position f. Exposure to violence at school g. Training type h. Training amount	III. <u>Outcome value</u> a. Importance of preventing violence b. Value of teaching skills	V. <u>Outcome expectation</u> <i>Student skills</i> a. Respect for differences b. Social discrimination c. Seeking assistance in conflict d. Use of nonthreatening language e. Remaining calm in conflict f. Use of CR skills g. Nonviolent responses to conflict h. Use of peer mediation <i>Preventative measures</i> a. Teacher training b. CRE <i>Punitive responses</i> a. Detention b. Suspension
		IV. <u>Efficacy expectation</u> a. Respect for differences b. Social discrimination c. Seeking assistance in conflict d. Use of nonthreatening language e. Remaining calm in conflict f. Use of CR skills g. Nonviolent responses to conflict h. Use of peer mediation	

Research questions and the independent variables. Four of the research questions involved demographic variables and four involved background variables as potentially related to teachers' outcome expectations (RQ1a, RQ1b, RQ2a, and RQ2b), beliefs of self-efficacy (RQ3 and RQ4), and teachers' value of outcomes (RQ5 and RQ6):

RQ1a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to *demographic variables*?

RQ1b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to *background variables*?

RQ2a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of specific violence prevention skills related to *demographic variables*?

RQ2b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of specific violence prevention skills related to *background variables*?

RQ3: In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in teaching violence prevention skills related to *demographic variables*?

RQ4: In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in teaching violence prevention skills related to *demographic variables*?

RQ5: In what ways is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to *demographic variables*?

RQ6: In what ways is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to *background variables*?

Independent variables fell into two primary categories: demographics and background. Demographic variables included age, race, and gender. Background variables included education level, years teaching, school district, Title I status of school, teaching position, exposure to violence, types of training received, and amounts of training received.

Demographic variables were included to capture any variations in perceptions that might be related to basic differences unrelated to participant life choice. Gender and race/ethnicity response choices were based on those established by Kandakai and King in the development of the original survey while age response choices were determined based on the earliest age that teachers enter the profession (20 years) and the age at which many of teachers seek to retire (60+ years). Table 4 provides the details of response choices for demographic variables.

Table 4
Demographic Variable Response Choices

Age	Gender	Race/ethnicity
20-29 years	Female	Black
30-39 years	Male	White
40-49 years		Asian
50-59 years		Hispanic
60+ years		Multi-racial

Background variables were included to determine if participant experiences were related to perceptions. The degree held and the years that a participant has taught indicate the level of knowledge and experience. Participants with a bachelor's degree represent the minimum required education for teachers. Those with master's degrees are those who have pursued education beyond that required and those with specialist degrees are those who have pursued positions such as those in guidance, assessment, or administration. Doctoral degrees indicate participants who have pursued the highest level of education. Response choices were designed to suggest novice (0-3 years), early career (4-9 years), experienced (10-14), and veteran (15-19 and 20+ years).

Participants were randomly selected from two school districts in central Florida. These are both large districts that are adjacent to one another in neighboring metropolitan areas. While there may be some overlap, the districts had distinct violence prevention programs and policies. For example, one district mandated the use of peer mediation whereas in the other district it was a voluntary, school-based program.

Title I is a federal statute adopted in 1968 to provide the support necessary to close the achievement gap between students by providing additional funding and support to schools who serve populations that consist of at least 40% of low socioeconomic status (Figure 11). This is determined by a minimum of 75% of students receiving free or reduced cost lunch. Inclusion of this variable was designed to determine differences in the experiences of teachers serving low socioeconomic populations.

The purpose of this title is to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging State academic achievement standards and state academic assessments. This purpose can be accomplished by —

1. ensuring that high-quality academic assessments, accountability systems, teacher preparation and training, curriculum, and instructional materials are aligned with challenging State academic standards so that students, teachers, parents, and administrators can measure progress against common expectations for student academic achievement;
2. meeting the educational needs of low-achieving children in our Nation's highest-poverty schools, limited English proficient children, migratory children, children with disabilities, Indian children, neglected or delinquent children, and young children in need of reading assistance
3. closing the achievement gap between high- and low-performing children, especially the achievement gaps between minority and nonminority students, and between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers;
4. holding schools, local educational agencies, and States accountable for improving the academic achievement of all students, and identifying and turning around low-performing schools that have failed to provide a high-quality education to their students, while providing alternatives to students in such schools to enable the students to receive a high-quality education;
5. distributing and targeting resources sufficiently to make a difference to local educational agencies and schools where needs are greatest;
6. improving and strengthening accountability, teaching, and learning by using State assessment systems designed to ensure that students are meeting challenging State academic achievement and content standards and increasing achievement overall, but especially for the disadvantaged;
7. providing greater decision-making authority and flexibility to schools and teachers in exchange for greater responsibility for student performance;
8. providing children an enriched and accelerated educational program, including the use of school wide programs or additional services that increase the amount and quality of instructional time;
9. promoting school wide reform and ensuring the access of children to effective, scientifically based instructional strategies and challenging academic content;
10. significantly elevating the quality of instruction by providing staff in participating schools with substantial opportunities for professional development;
11. coordinating services under all parts of this title with each other, with other educational services, and, to the extent feasible, with other agencies providing services to youth, children, and families; and
12. affording parents substantial and meaningful opportunities to participate in the education of their children

Figure 11. Title I Statement of Purpose. From Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965

The next background independent variable was teaching position. This variable included responses designed to determine the level (elementary or secondary), the student population (general education or exceptional student education), and the classroom context (specialist—physical education, art, music, etc.—or classroom). This was a multiple response set in which respondents could indicate level, population, *and* context. The purpose was to identify differences in perceptions based on variations in position.

Just as with the previously discussed background variables, delineation of exposure to violence sought to uncover how perceptions differ among those with varying degrees of exposure to violence in the school setting. Responses ranged from “*never or almost never*” to “*daily*.” Violence was defined as “physical force intended to cause harm” and exposure was defined as “encountering situations that result in either violence or staff intervention to prevent violence.”

Training type and amount were variables that were designed to determine if training is related to perceptions. Based on the literature and the existing survey the training options explored included bullying prevention, conflict resolution, peer mediation, anger management, and crisis intervention. The response choices for amount of training were based on common types of training available to teachers: overviews (*1-3 hours*), programs (*4-6 hours*), and workshops or full courses (*7+ hours*). Overviews often provide basic information and definitions. Program training frequently consists of training in how a specific program is utilized. Workshops often cover multiple programs over more than one day while full courses may consist of college level enrollment in specific content. Table 5 provides the detail of background variable response choices.

Table 5
Background Variable Response Choices

Degree	Years experience	District	Title I status	Teaching position
Bachelor's	0-3	A	Yes	Elementary
Master's	4-9	B	No	Secondary
Specialist	10-14			Specials
Doctoral	15-19			ESE
	20+			
Exposure to violence		Training type		Training amount
Never/almost never		Bullying prevention		1-3 hours
Few times per year		Conflict resolution		4-6 hours
Monthly		Peer mediation		7+ hours
Weekly		Anger management		
Daily		Crisis intervention		

Research questions and the dependent variables. Rational choice theory and Bandura's theory of self-efficacy informed the dependent variables as discussed in previous sections. These variables were outcome value, efficacy expectation, and outcome expectation. Four of the research questions involved outcome expectations (RQ1a, RQ1b, RQ2a, and RQ2b), two research questions involved efficacy expectation (RQ3 and RQ4), and two involved outcome value (RQ5 and RQ6):

RQ1a: In what ways are teachers' *outcome expectations* of violence prevention approaches related to demographic variables?

RQ1b: In what ways are teachers' *outcome expectations* of violence prevention approaches related to background variables?

RQ2a: In what ways are teachers' *outcome expectations* of specific violence prevention skills related to demographic variables?

RQ2b: In what ways are teachers' *outcome expectations* of specific violence prevention skills related to background variables?

RQ3: In what ways are teachers' *beliefs of self-efficacy* in teaching violence prevention skills related to demographic variables?

RQ4: In what ways are teachers' *beliefs of self-efficacy* in teaching violence prevention skills related to demographic variables?

RQ5: In what ways is the *outcome value* teachers place on violence prevention related to demographic variables?

RQ6: In what ways is the *outcome value* teachers place on violence prevention related to background variables?

The survey instrument utilized to measure and operationalize these variables included multiple indicators for each of the three variables. Outcome expectation questions addressed teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of commonly utilized approaches and the effect of teaching violence prevention skills to students. The commonly used violence prevention approaches section explored perceptions of the effectiveness of current violence prevention and intervention strategies including preventative measures and punitive responses (RQ1a and RQ1b). These strategies included teacher training, teaching students to use CR skills, detentions, and suspensions (Figure 12). Responses choices were of Likert-type scale (*extremely ineffective, ineffective, neither ineffective nor effective, effective, and extremely effective*). This portion of the outcome expectation was an additional item that was developed from the survey developed by Kandakai and King (2002a) to examine pre-service teachers' beliefs. It was included because of its ability to collect information about teacher perceptions of various approaches to violence prevention.

How effective do you believe each of the following is to reduce school violence?

- a. Training teachers and school staff in violence prevention
- b. Teaching children to resolve problems with words
- c. Keeping students after school
- d. Suspending students from school

Figure 12. Outcome expectation of traditional approaches survey items

The second section was more specific in its query by addressing specific violence prevention skills (RQ2a and RQ2b) including: respect for differences, social discrimination, seeking assistance in conflict, use of nonthreatening language, remaining calm in conflict, use of CR skills, nonviolent responses to conflict, and use of peer mediation (Figure 13). Survey items answered with Likert-type response choices (*strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree*).

If I effectively teach students to _____ it will prevent violence.

- a. respect others who are of a different national origin or ethnicity
- b. not discriminate against others based on social differences (i.e. gender, class, physical disability)
- c. seek help from school staff when they encounter conflict with others
- d. use nonthreatening language when speaking to others
- e. remain calm when they encounter conflict
- f. use conflict resolution skills
- g. refrain from fighting when they encounter conflict with others
- h. use peer mediators when they encounter difficult situations with others

Figure 13. Outcome expectation of violence prevention approaches survey items

Efficacy expectation questions addressed teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy in teaching students to utilize nonviolent methods when confronted with conflict (RQ4 and RQ5). The survey included eight items measuring efficacy beliefs including ability to teach students to: respect differences, refrain from social discrimination, seek help in resolving conflicts, use nonthreatening language, remain calm when in conflict, use CR skills, respond to conflict nonviolently, and use peer mediation. Figure 14 provides detail of the efficacy expectation survey items answered with Likert-type response choices (*strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree*).

I believe that I can effectively teach students to _____.

- a. respect others who are of a different national origin or ethnicity
- b. not discriminate against others based on social differences (i.e. gender, class, physical disability)
- c. seek help from school staff when they encounter conflict with others
- d. use nonthreatening language when speaking to others
- e. remain calm when they encounter conflict
- f. use conflict resolution skills
- g. refrain from fighting when they encounter conflict with others
- h. use peer mediators when they encounter difficult situations with others

Figure 14. Efficacy expectation survey items

There were two outcome value questions which addressed the value that teachers attach to violence prevention (RQ5 and RQ6). Outcome value questions examined the importance that the respondents place on a) preventing violence, and b) teaching violence prevention skills to students (Figure 15) utilizing a Likert-type scale (*strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree*).

Please rate the following statements:

- a. I believe preventing school violence is important.
- b. I value teaching violence prevention skills to students.

Figure 15. Outcome value survey items

Research questions and conceptual framework. Table 6 illustrates how the survey subscales sought to answer the research questions. For example, the items in subscale I (demographics) were analyzed against the items in subscale III (outcome value) to address research question 5—RQ5 (“In what ways is the value teachers place on

violence prevention related to demographic variables?’’). By analyzing items in the independent variable subscales against the items of specific dependent variable subscales, the information regarding the related research questions was obtained.

Table 6
Method of Variable Analysis

Independent variables	Dependent variables		
		Subscale III	Subscale IV
	Subscale I	RQ5	RQ3
	Subscale II	RQ6	RQ4

Figure 16 illustrates how the variables and specific items are related to the conceptual framework. Taken together with Table 2 the connections of theory to variable, variable to subscales, and subscales to items are revealed.

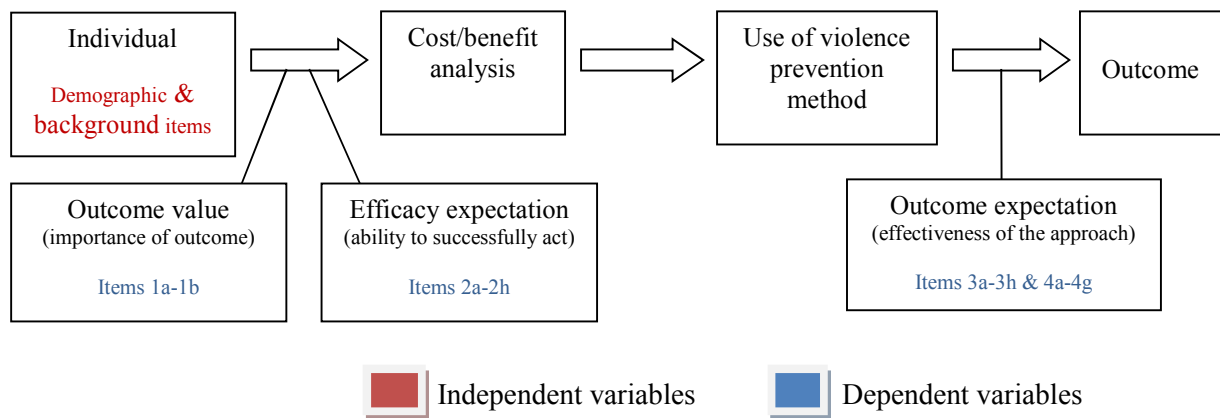


Figure 16. Conceptual framework with variable identification

Reliability and validity. Demographic and background queries as well as subscales for efficacy expectation, outcome expectation, and outcome value were developed and tested for validity and reliability by the survey's authors based on a single study. To establish stability reliability the instruments were subjected to test-retest procedure whereby they were completed by a convenience sample of 25 teachers, then again one week later. Coefficients for efficacy expectation, outcome expectation, outcome value, and strategy effectiveness were 0.73, 0.67, 0.75, and 0.79 respectively. Internal reliability was calculated using the Cronbach's alpha and were 0.84, 0.96, 0.45, and 0.87 respectively. The relatively low coefficient for outcome value may be a result of the low number of items addressing this variable.

Validity measures included those for face, content, and construct validity. Face validity was established for the common approaches section of the outcome expectation subscale (subscale V, item 4) by submitting the instrument to two experts in the field of health education. Revisions based on the recommendations of these individuals were made as necessary. Content validity for this subscale was established via a thorough review of the literature. A principal components analysis was conducted to establish construct validity of subscales III, IV, and V (item 3) which indicated the three clusters of items. These were consistent with the Bandura model undergirding the survey. Criterion loadings for efficacy-outcome items, outcome expectation items (item 3), and outcome value items were at minimum 0.69, 0.82, and 0.86 respectively.

Procedures

Execution of the proposed project involved four primary steps—access, survey distribution, data analysis, and data reporting. Access involved submitting research

proposals to each school district and to the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The proposals were accepted by the districts and the IRB.

Step two involved the distribution of the survey. The survey was built into an online survey program through “Fluid Surveys” whereby respondents entered the website to complete the survey. It was distributed to the random sample via school board email. Email reminders were sent two weeks later.

Quantitative analysis involved examination of the independent variables against the dependent variables utilizing descriptive and inferential statistics. Responses to items in subscales III, IV, and V used a Likert-type scale with five option choices (“*strongly agree-strongly disagree*” and “*extremely effective-extremely ineffective*”) making these variables ordinal. Independent ordinal variables were demographic and background items including age (20-29, 30-39, 40-49, 50-59, 60+ years), highest degree completed (bachelor, master, specialist, doctoral degrees) years teaching (0-3, 4-9, 10-14, 15-19, 20+ years) exposure to violence (never, rarely, monthly, weekly, daily), and amount of training (1-3, 4-6, 7+ hours). Other independent variables were nominal including sex, Title I status, certification, and training type.

Examination of differences between groups was conducted to reveal variance through multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The groups were disaggregated by the independent variables and variance of the dependent variables was analyzed. MANOVA analyses performed include the eleven independent variables (age, school district, highest degree, sex, race/ethnicity, Title I status, teacher certification, years teaching, exposure to violence, training type, and training amount) separately against four groups of dependent variable indicators. The first and second groups contain the

indicators of efficacy expectation and outcome expectation specific to violence prevention skills respectively: (a) respect for differences, (b) social discrimination, (c) seeking assistance in conflict, (d) use of nonthreatening language, (e) remaining calm in conflict, (f) use of CR skills, (g) nonviolent responses to conflict, and (h) use of peer mediation. Indicators of outcome expectation of preventative methods of responding for violence made up the third group: teacher training and teaching students specific violence prevention skills. The fourth group was comprised of outcome expectation of punitive responses: detention and suspension. Table 7 illustrates the outcome expectation MANOVAs. Those MANOVAs that suggested significant differences in the dependent variables based on the independent variables were further examined utilizing ANOVA to separate the categories of the independent variables for examination against specific indicators of each dependent variable.

Table 7
Outcome Expectation Items DV Sets

Student skills Set A	Preventative measures Set B	Punitive responses Set C
<i>Teaching students to _____ will prevent violence</i>		
a. Respect differences	i. Train teachers	k. Detention
b. Refrain from social discrimination	j. Teach students to use words	l. Suspension
c. Seek help when in conflict		
d. Use nonthreatening language		
e. Remain calm in conflict		
f. Use conflict resolution skills		
g. Refrain from violence		
h. Use peer mediators		

Research questions 1a and 1b. In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to demographic (RQ1a) and background

(RQ1b) variables? A number of MANOVAs were conducted utilizing each of the three sets of dependent variable items to answer these questions (Table 8) such that each of the independent variables were analyzed against each set of the dependent variables.

Table 8

Research Questions 1a and 1b MANOVA Analyses with DV Sets B and C

Research question	IV
1a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to demographic variables?	Age Race Gender
1b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to background variables?	District Degree Title I status Teaching position Years teaching Exposure to violence Bullying prevention training Y/N Bullying prevention training hours Conflict resolution training Y/N Conflict resolution training hours Peer mediation training Y/N Peer mediation training hours Anger management training Y/N Anger management training hours Crisis intervention training Y/N Crisis intervention training hours Total training hours Variety of training

Note. All IVs analyzed against sets B and C of dependent variables in Table 7.

Research questions 2a and 2b. In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations specific student skills related to demographic (RQ2a) and background (RQ2b) variables? A number of MANOVAs were conducted utilizing a set of efficacy expectation dependent variable items (Table 8) to answer these questions (Table 9) such that each of the independent variables were analyzed against the set of the dependent variables.

Table 9

Research Questions 2a and 2b MANOVAs with Outcome Expectation DV Set A

Research question	IV
2a: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention skills related to demographic variables?	Age Race Gender
2b: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention skills related to background variables?	District Degree Title I status Teaching position Years teaching Exposure to violence Bullying prevention training Y/N Bullying prevention training hours Conflict resolution training Y/N Conflict resolution training hours Peer mediation training Y/N Peer mediation training hours Anger management training Y/N Anger management training hours Crisis intervention training Y/N Crisis intervention training hours Total training hours Variety of training

Note. All IVs analyzed against set A of dependent variables in Table 7.

Research questions 3 and 4. In what ways are teachers' beliefs of self-efficacy in teaching violence prevention skills related to demographic (RQ3) and background (RQ4) variables? A number of MANOVAs were conducted utilizing the efficacy expectation DV set (Table 10) to answer these questions (Table 11) such that each of the independent variables was analyzed against each set of the dependent variables.

Table 10
Efficacy Expectation and Outcome Value DV Sets

Efficacy Expectation DV Set I can effectively teach student to _____.	Outcome Value DV Set
a. Respect differences b. Refrain from social discrimination c. Seek help when in conflict d. Use nonthreatening language e. Remain calm in conflict f. Use conflict resolution skills g. Refrain from violence h. Use peer mediators	a. Preventing violence in schools is important b. Teaching violence prevention skills to students is important.

Table 11
Research Questions 3 and 4 MANOVAs with Efficacy Expectation DV Set

Research question	IV
3: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention skills related to demographic variables?	Age Race Gender
4: In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention skills related to background variables?	District Degree Title I status Teaching position Years teaching Exposure to violence Bullying prevention training Y/N Bullying prevention training hours Conflict resolution training Y/N Conflict resolution training hours Peer mediation training Y/N Peer mediation training hours Anger management training Y/N Anger management training hours Crisis intervention training Y/N Crisis intervention training hours Total training hours Variety of training

Note. All IVs analyzed against Efficacy Expectation DV set in Table 10.

Research questions 5 and 6. In what way is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to demographic (RQ5) and background (RQ6) variables? A number of ANOVA analyses were conducted utilizing the Outcome Value DV Set (Table 10) to answer these questions (Table 12) such that each of the independent variables were analyzed against each set of the dependent variables.

Table 12

Research Questions 5 and 6 ANOVAs with Outcome Value DV Set

Research question	IV
5: In what way is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to demographic variables?	Age Race Gender
6: In what way is the outcome value teachers place on violence prevention related to background variables?	District Degree Title I status Teaching position Years teaching Exposure to violence Bullying prevention training Y/N Bullying prevention training hours Conflict resolution training Y/N Conflict resolution training hours Peer mediation training Y/N Peer mediation training hours Anger management training Y/N Anger management training hours Crisis intervention training Y/N Crisis intervention training hours Total training hours Variety of training

Note. All IVs analyzed against outcome value DV set in Table 10.

Ethics/Reflexivity

Surveys were distributed to a random sample of 1,200 and did not require the names of the participants; however demographic data including teaching assignment and number of years teaching was requested making complete anonymity difficult. In an

effort to preserve the greatest level of confidentiality, analysis and reporting of data was done through the categorization of attributes. For example schools were categorized along a particular attribute such as socio-economic composition or level rather than by name or location. Similarly, personal attributes were clustered for analysis and reporting. Teaching experience, for instance, was reported in multiple year increments and teaching assignment was categorized by school level and specialty (e.g. exceptional student education, general education, etc.) rather than by subject and grade level. The maintenance of confidentiality not only protects respondents from potential criticism but also provides a greater measure of honesty in reporting. While there was the risk that internet addresses and history may be evidenced, this risk was minimal in terms of others accessing the survey responses. The researcher, if particularly technologically savvy, might have been capable of tracing the identity of the respondent to the address, however this risk was low since the identity of the respondents was of no consequence to the project. Respondents were assigned a number and were provided with information allowing them to contact the researcher with questions, concerns, or to request withdrawal from the study. Risks to the participants were minimal but could have included repercussions from supervisors should the contents of their responses be accessed and viewed unfavorably. One potential benefit to the respondents was that they may have felt some satisfaction at being heard.

As a current educator it was important for the researcher to work diligently to ensure neutrality and objectivity in both the development of the research project and in the analysis of data. As a result, this researcher solicited the expertise and feedback of

other educators and those outside the field of education in reviewing data coding, analysis, and reporting.

Chapter IV: Data analysis

Preliminary data screening and cleaning resulted in the elimination of 15 participants' surveys. Five of these were selected due to incomplete responses. The other ten were selected due to questionable responses. Five of these responded to every dependent item "*strongly disagree*" and two responded "*strongly agree*." Three participants responded inconsistently to similar items in a pattern of responses (i.e. *strongly agree, strongly disagree, strongly agree, strongly disagree, etc.*).

Descriptive Data

The majority of respondents were female (80%), white (80%), and had been teaching for at least four years (84%). Participants ranged in age with more than half reportedly in their 40s or 50s and about 25% in the youngest and oldest categories (20s and 60+ respectively). Respondents worked in two school districts: District A (47%) and District B (52%). More than 52% worked in Title I funded schools (Table 13). Current teaching position was a multiple response set (i.e. respondents were able to select more than one response). Almost 40% identified themselves as elementary teachers and nearly 45% as secondary teachers. About 20% reported teaching exceptional student education (ESE) and about 7% were reportedly specialists (art, music, or physical education).

Table 13
Demographic and Background Characteristics

Item	N	%
Age (years)		
20-29	59	14.4
30-39	86	21
40-49	101	24.7
50-59	109	26.7
60+	51	12.5
Race/ethnicity		
Black	38	9.3
White	328	80.2
Asian	2	0.5
Hispanic	23	5.6
Multiracial	6	1.5
Other	11	2.7
Gender		
Female	326	79.7
Male	81	19.8
Education level		
Bachelor's	214	52.3
Master's	173	42.3
Specialist	11	2.7
Doctorate	8	2.0
Years teaching		
0-3	64	15.6
4-9	122	29.8
10-14	65	15.9
15-19	45	11
20+	113	27.6
District		
A	194	47.4
B	214	52.3
Title I school		
Yes	213	52.1
No	192	46.9
Current position		
Elementary	162	39.6
Secondary	183	44.7
ESE	82	20
Specialist	29	7.1
Exposure to violence		
Never/almost never	156	38.1
A few times per year	149	36.4
Monthly	48	11.7
Weekly	38	9.3
Daily	18	4.4
Training received		
Bullying prevention	299	73.1
Peer mediation	123	30.1
Conflict resolution	194	47.4
Anger management	84	20.5
Crisis intervention	260	63.9
N= 409 teachers surveyed		

Exposure to violence. Higher frequencies of exposure to violence were reported in District B, Title I funded schools, and among ESE and secondary teachers. Overall, 75% of respondents reported encountering violence no more than a few times per year (Table 13). About 12% of respondents in District A reported encountering violence daily or weekly whereas 15% of those in District B reported this level of exposure (Table 14). 19% of those teaching in Title I funded schools reported encountering violence daily or weekly whereas only 7% of respondents in non-Title I schools reported this level of violence (Table 15). Approximately 17% of ESE and 16% secondary teachers reported encountering violence at this level as compared to 11% of elementary teachers (Table 16).

Table 14
School District and Exposure to Violence

	Never or almost never	A few times a year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily	N=
District A	77 39.7%	69 35.6%	25 12.9%	16 8.2%	7 3.6%	194
District B	78 36.4%	80 37.4%	20 10.7%	22 10.3%	11 5.1%	214
Total	155 38%	149 36.5%	48 11.8%	38 9.3%	18 4.4%	408

Table 15
Title I Funding and Exposure to Violence

	Never or almost never	A few times a year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily	N=
Title I funding	56 25%	90 42.3%	29 13.6%	28 13.1%	13 6.1%	213
No Title I funding	102 53.1%	54 30.7%	18 9.4%	9 4.7%	4 2.1%	192
Total	155 38.3%	149 36.8%	47 11.6%	37 9.1%	17 4.2%	405

Table 16
Teaching Position and Exposure to Violence

	Never or almost never	A few times a year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily	N=
Elementary	77 47.5%	51 31.5%	17 10.5%	14 8.6%	3 1.9%	162
Secondary	55 30.1%	73 39.9%	25 13.7%	22 12%	8 4.4%	183
ESE	21 25.6%	29 35.4%	18 22%	6 7.3%	8 9.8%	82
Specialist	10 34.5%	12 41.4%	3 10.3%	3 10.3%	1 3.4%	29
Total	163 44.2%	138 37.4%	63 17.1%	45 12.2%	20 5.4%	369

Training. Bullying prevention was the most common type of training received by respondents (73%) followed by crisis intervention (64%) (Table 17). Almost half (47%) of respondents received training in conflict resolution whereas peer mediation was received by less than one third (30%) of participating teachers. Anger management was received by only about one in five (21%) respondents.

Table 17
Violence Prevention Training Details

Training type	N	%
Bullying prevention	299	73.1*
1-3 hours	170	56.7
4-6 hours	80	26.7
7+ hours	50	12.2
District level	227	75.9
College course	16	5.4
Other	56	18.7
Required	222	73.5
Elective	80	26.5
Peer mediation	123	30.1*
1-3 hours	64	52
4-6 hours	34	27.6
7+ hours	25	20.3
District level	91	74
College course	12	9.8
Other	21	17.1
Required	58	47.2
Elective	65	52.8
Conflict resolution	194	47.2*
1-3 hours	108	55.7
4-6 hours	46	23.7
7+ hours	40	20.6
District level	134	69.4
College course	20	10.4
Other	40	20.6
Required	117	60.6
Elective	76	39.4
Anger management	84	20.8*
1-3 hours	43	50.6
4-6 hours	19	22.4
7+ hours	23	27.1
District level	51	12.5
College course	16	3.9
Other	17	20.2
Required	39	45.9
Elective	46	54.1
Crisis Intervention	261	63.8*
1-3 hours	109	41.8
4-6 hours	85	32.6
7+ hours	67	25.7
District level	208	79.7
College course	12	4.6
Other	41	15.7
Required	209	80.1
Elective	52	19.9
*Percent of total sample (N= 409)		
Data only reflect those responding to items		

Overall more ESE teachers reported having had at least three types of training (53%) followed by elementary (46%), specialists (45%), then secondary (43%) (Table 18). A greater percentage of respondents from District B had three or more types of training (49%) compared to District A (41%). More respondents in District A had been trained in peer mediation (32%) than in District B (29%). However, in all other included areas more District B teachers had received training (Table 19).

Table 18
Position and Training Variety

	No training	1 training	2 trainings	3 trainings	4 trainings	5 trainings	N=
Elementary	17 10.5%	38 23.5%	33 20.4%	34 21%	22 13.6%	18 11.1%	162
Secondary	29 15.8%	36 19.7%	39 21.3%	37 20.2%	24 13.1%	18 9.8%	183
ESE	10 12.2%	17 20.7%	12 14.6%	19 23.2%	13 15.9%	11 13.4%	82
Specialist	8 27.6%	3 10.3%	5 17.2%	6 20.7%	2 6.9%	5 17.2%	29

Table 19
School District and Training Received

	Bullying prevention	Peer mediation	Conflict resolution	Anger management	Crisis intervention
District A	139 72.8%	62 32.1%	85 44%	37 19.2%	107 55.7%
District B	159 74.3%	61 28.5%	109 50.9%	47 22%	153 71.5%
Total	298 93.6%	123 30.2%	194 47.7%	84 20.6%	260 64%

Research Questions 1 and 2—Outcome Expectation

Outcome expectations were assessed using two separate categories of outcomes. The first looked at violence prevention approaches including preventative measures and punitive responses. The second addressed specific conflict resolution/violence prevention skills taught to students (Table 20).

Table 20
Dependent Variable Frequencies

Variable	% +	% -
OUTCOME EXPECTATION 1		
<i>Preventative measures</i>		
OutcExp1.0— how effective ...training teachers and staff in violence prevention	87.3	2
OutcExp1.1—teaching children to resolve problems w/words	91.1	1.7
<i>Punitive response</i>		
OutcExp1.2—keeping students after school	32.8	31.6
OutcExp1.3—suspending students from school	35.7	36
OUTCOME EXPECTATION 2		
<i>Student skills</i>		
OutcExp2.0— if I teach to ...respect others of different natl. origin or ethnicity	87.7	1
OutcExp2.1—not discriminate based on social differences	88.5	1.2
OutcExp2.2—seek help when in conflict	89.7	0.5
OutcExp2.3—use nonthreatening language when...	91.9	0.2
OutcExp2.4—remain calm when encountering conflict	92.6	0.2
OutcExp2.5—use CR skills	91.7	0
OutcExp2.6—refrain from fighting when encountering conflict	92.1	0.2
OutcExp2.7—use peer mediators when encountering difficult situations	83.3	5.1
EFFICACY EXPECTATION		
EffExp.0— I can effectively teach ...respect others of diff. natl. origin/ethnicity	91.2	1.4
EffExp.1—not discriminate based on social differences	89.7	4
EffExp.2—seek help when encountering conflict	93.6	6.3
EffExp.3—use nonthreatening language when speaking to others	91.9	4.4
EffExp.4—remain calm when encountering conflict	80.7	4.6
EffExp.5—use CR skills	84.8	3.4
EffExp.6—refrain from fighting when encountering conflict	81.6	4.4
EffExp.7—use peer mediators when encountering difficult situations	69.8	6.1
OUTCOME VALUE		
OutcVal.0—preventing school violence is important	96.3	3.4
OutcVal.1—teaching violence prevention skills to students is important	90.4	4.6

One-way between-groups multivariate analyses of variance were performed to investigate differences between twenty independent variables (demographic and background) and dependent variables. Assumptions of normality and linearity were not violated due to the sample size and the central limit theorem. Homogeneity of variance-covariance was examined and when Box's M Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was violated, Pillai's Trace was used to ensure robustness. Correlation between efficacy expectation variables was examined and revealed a high correlation between beliefs of efficacy in teaching students, (a) not to discriminate against others based on social differences, and (b) to respect others of different national origin or ethnicity. In order to preserve the integrity of the survey designed, tested, and utilized by Kandakai and King (2002b), these variables were neither combined nor eliminated.

RQs 1a and 1b. Research questions 1a and 1b examined potential relationships between teachers' outcome expectations of preventative and punitive violence prevention approaches and the demographic and background variables (RQ1a and RQ1b respectively). Measures commonly taken to prevent violence include training teachers and staff in violence prevention and teaching students to solve problems with words. Of the two, teaching students to use words was seen as effective (4= *effective* or 5= *highly effective*) by about 91% of respondents (Table 20). Training teachers and staff was perceived as effective by about 87%. Punitive responses included detaining students after school and suspending students from school. Less than one third of respondents felt

that keeping student after school is effective. Similarly, just fewer than 36% responded favorably to student suspension.

One-way between-groups multivariate analyses of variance were performed to investigate differences between twenty independent variables and the two dependent outcome expectation for preventative measures variables. These variables were (a) training teachers and staff in violence prevention, and (b) teaching students to resolve problems with words. Of the twenty analyses conducted, four reached statistical significance including those with gender, training variety, and training in peer mediation.

One-way between-groups MANOVAs were performed to investigate differences between twenty independent variables and the two dependent outcome expectations for punitive responses variables. These variables were (a) keeping student after school, and (b) suspending students from school. Only one of these MANOVAs resulted in significant differences.

Research question 1a. RQ1a asks, “In what ways are teachers’ outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to demographic variables?” Of the analyses conducted involving demographic variables, gender was the only variable with significant results. This was true from both preventative measures and punitive responses.

Relative to preventative measures there was a significant difference between males and females on the combined measures variables, $F(2, 403) = 8.042$, $p = .000$, Pillai’s Trace (used due to unequal numbers) = .038, partial eta squared = .038. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, the only difference to reach statistical significance, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .025, was teaching

students to resolve problems with words, $F(1, 404) = 16.093$, $p = .000$. This effect was small however, with a partial eta squared of .009. Examination of mean scores indicated that females ($M = 4.37$, $SD = .656$) reported higher scores in outcome expectation than males ($M = 4.04$, $SD = .679$). The effect here was moderate with a partial eta squared of .043.

In analysis of punitive responses and demographics gender was also significant. Differences between males and females were indicated, $F(2, 404) = 4.945$, $p = .008$, Pillai's Trace = .024, partial eta squared = .024. When examined separately, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .025 the only difference to reach statistical significance was suspension from school. Mean scores revealed that males ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 1.142$) rated suspending students from school higher than females ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.116$).

Research Question 1b. RQ1b asks, "In what ways are teachers' outcome expectations of violence prevention approaches related to background variables?" Of the analyses conducted involving background variables, training variety and peer mediation training were the only analyses to reach statistical significance. Interaction effects were also examined as related to background variables. Two-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine training variety and peer mediation with bullying prevention training, conflict resolution training, crisis intervention training, exposure to violence, degree, district, and Title I status. No significant interaction effects resulted.

Training variety. MANOVA exploring differences between those with high and low levels of variety in training and preventative measures variables resulted in statistically significant results, $F(10, 802) = 2.023$, $p = .025$, Wilk's Lambda = .951. The effect was small with a partial eta squared of .025. However, when examined separately

using Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .025 the effect was greater for training teachers and staff in violence prevention, $F(5, 402) = 3.591$, $p = .003$, partial eta squared = .043.

Mean scores indicated a significant difference between those with five types of training ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .679$) and those with one type of training ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .632$) in expectation of the outcome of training teachers and staff in violence prevention.

Peer mediation training. Differences between those who received peer mediation training and those who did not in expectations of preventative measures outcomes were significant, $F(2, 404) = 5.150$, $p = .006$, Pillai's Trace (used due to unequal numbers) = .025, partial eta squared = .025. When considered separately using an adjusted alpha of .025, teaching students to solve problems with words reached statistical significance, $F(1, 404) = 9.612$, $p = .002$. The mean score for those with peer mediation training was higher ($M = 4.28$, $SD = .705$) than for those without peer mediation training ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .652$). Again, the effect was small with a partial eta squared of .023.

Research questions 2a and 2b. The second category of outcome expectation was comprised of specific student CRE skills including respecting others of different national origin or ethnicity, not discriminating against others based on social differences, seeking help with conflict, using nonthreatening language, remaining calm in conflict, using conflict resolution skills, refraining from fighting, and using peer mediators. Respondents rated their belief in the effectiveness of these skills on a five-point scale. More than 90% of respondents believed that using nonthreatening language, remaining calm in conflict, using conflict resolution skills, and refraining from fighting (92%, 93%, 92%, 92% respectively) were effective (4= *agree* or 5= *strongly agree*) (Table 20). Respecting others of different national origin or ethnicity, not discriminating against

others based on social differences, and seeking help with conflict were also deemed effective (88%, 89%, 90% respectively). Use of peer mediators was perceived as effective by the fewest respondents with about 83% rating it so. MANOVA analyses conducted on these dependent variables did not reveal any statistically significant findings.

Research Questions 3 and 4—Efficacy Expectation

Efficacy expectation was assessed through eight variables relating to teaching specific violence prevention skills to students (Table 20). A large majority of respondents believed (4= *agree* or 5= *strongly agree*) that they could effectively teach students to respect others of different national origin or ethnicity, refrain from discriminating based on social differences such as gender, socioeconomic status, physical disability, seek help when encountering conflict, and use nonthreatening language when speaking to others (91%, 90%, 94%, and 92% respectively). Fewer participant teachers believed in their abilities to effectively teach students to remain calm when in conflict, use conflict resolution skills, refrain from fighting when in conflict, and use peer mediators (81%, 85%, 82%, and 70% respectively). One-way between-groups multivariate analyses of variance were performed to investigate differences between twenty independent variables (demographic and background) and eight dependent variables.

Research question 3. RQ 3 asks, “In what ways are teachers’ beliefs of self-efficacy in using violence prevention measures related to demographic variables?”

There were no significant findings in analysis of demographic variables and the dependent variables.

Research question 4. RQ4 asks, “In what ways are teachers’ beliefs of self-efficacy in using violence prevention measures related to background variables?”

The eight dependent variables were (Table 21) analyzed against the background independent variables. The following were significant: 1) school district; 2) variety of training received; whether a respondent had received 3) peer mediation training; 4) conflict resolution training; 5) bullying prevention training; and 6) crisis intervention training.

Table 21

Dependent variables—Efficacy Expectation

I believe that I can effectively teach students to _____.	
EffExp.0	Respect others who are of different national origin or ethnicity
EffExp.1	Not discriminate against others based on social differences
EffExp.2	Seek help from school staff when they encounter conflict with others
EffExp.3	Use nonthreatening language when speaking to others
EffExp.4	Remain calm when they encounter conflict with others
EffExp.5	Use conflict resolution skills
EffExp.6	Refrain from fighting when they encounter conflict with others
EffExp.7	Use peer mediators when they encounter difficult situations with others

School district. The first MANOVA with significant results was performed to investigate district differences in beliefs of self-efficacy. There was a statistically significant difference between District A and District B on the combined dependent variables, $F(8, 395) = 3.386$, $p = .001$, Wilk’s Lambda = .936, partial eta squared = .064. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, none of the variables reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .006.

Training variety. The second MANOVA to reach statistical significance examined differences between efficacy expectation variables and the level of variety in training received, $F(40, 1980) = 1.809$, $p = .002$, Pillai's Trace = .176, partial eta squared = .035. When considered separately, six of the dependent variables reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .006.

The first was EffExp.1, $F(5, 399) = .514$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .055. An inspection of the mean scores indicated that respondents who received two ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .619$), three ($M = 4.33$, $SD = .734$), four ($M = 4.45$, $SD = .637$), or five ($M = 4.52$, $SD = .652$) types of training reported higher levels of self-efficacy than those who had no training ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .865$). A two-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of training variety and other independent variables including Title I status of the respondent's school, district, gender, and exposure to violence. There was a statistically significant interaction effect between variety of training and exposure to violence, $F(28, 380) = 1.809$, $p = .020$, partial eta squared = .083. Participants were divided into five groups according to the frequency of exposure to violence (group 1: *never/almost never*; group 2: *a few times per year*; group 3: *monthly*; group 4: *weekly*; group 5: *daily*). The Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean scores for those in group 2 who received no training ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .705$) or one type of training ($M = 3.97$, $SD = .770$) differed significantly from those who received five types of training ($M = 4.67$, $SD = .485$) who reported higher efficacy scores in teaching students not to discriminate based on social differences. The other groups did not differ significantly based on level of training.

EffExp. 3 also reached statistical significance, $F(5, 399) = 4.770$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .056. Two-way ANOVA revealed no interaction effects between training variety and Title I status, district, gender, or exposure to violence. The mean scores indicated that respondents who received no training ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .861$) differed significantly in their reported levels of efficacy in teaching students to use nonthreatening language from those who received three ($M = 4.43$, $SD = .587$), four ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .692$), or five ($M = 4.52$, $SD = .583$) types of training who reported incrementally higher efficacy scores.

Teaching students to remain calm (EffExp.4) and training variety also reached statistical significance, $F(5, 399) = 8.404$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .095. Examination of mean scores suggested that a greater variety of training resulted in higher efficacy scores. Receiving five types of training ($M = 4.44$, $SD = .649$) was significantly different in reported scores of efficacy from having no training ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .947$), one ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .892$), or two ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .792$) types of training. Receiving four types of training ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .701$) differed from having no training or one type of training. Having had three types of training ($M = 4.36$, $SD = .670$) also differed significantly from those with no training, one, or two types of training.

EffExp.5—teaching students to use conflict resolution skills—and variety of training reached statistically significant levels as well, $F(5, 399) = 1.809$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .096. Mean scores for this dependent variable increased incrementally as the variety of training increased. Those who received four ($M = 4.40$, $SD = .660$) or five ($M = 4.50$, $SD = .546$) types of training differed significantly in efficacy scores from those who received no training ($M = 3.85$, $SD = .931$), one ($M =$

3.95, SD = .784), or two (M = 4.00, SD = .715) types of training. Those with three types of training (M = 3.90, SD = .623) differed from those with no training or one type of training.

Statistically significant differences were revealed in efficacy scores for teaching students to refrain from fighting (EffExp.6) and training variety, $F(5, 399) = 5.621$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .066. Again, higher levels of efficacy were reported among those who received a greater variety of training. Those who received five types of training (M = 4.50, SD = .583) differed significantly in efficacy scores from those who received no training (M = 3.91, SD = .845), one (M = 3.90, SD = .883), or two (M = 3.77, SD = .747) types of training.

Lastly, the dependent variable coded EffExp.7 (teaching students to use peer mediators) and training variety reached significant levels, $F(5, 399) = 4.517$, $p = .001$, partial eta squared = .054. An examination of mean scores revealed that, as with previously discussed analyses, as the variety of training increased so did the mean scores for self-efficacy. Those who received five types of training (M = 4.29, SD = .798) differed significantly from those who received no training (M = 3.71, SD = .854), one (M = 3.74, SD = .858), or two (M = 3.77, SD = .845) types of training.

Peer mediation training. There was statistically significant difference between those who had received peer mediation training and those who had not, $F(8, 395) = 4.765$, $p = .000$, Pillai's Trace = .088, partial eta squared = .088. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, EffExp.1, $F(1, 402) = 11.982$, $p = .001$, partial eta squared = .029; EffExp.3, $F(1, 402) = 8.818$, $p = .003$, partial eta squared = .021; EffExp.4, $F(1, 402) = 17.158$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .041; EffExp.5, $F(1,$

402) = 25.172, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .059; EffExp.6, $F(1, 402) = 14.635$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .066; and EffExp.7, $F(1, 402) = 31.404$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .072 reached statistical significance using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .006. In each of these analyses, means of those who received peer mediation training were greater than those who did not (Table 22).

Table 22
Peer Mediation Training and Efficacy Expectation

	EffExp.1	EffExp.3	EffExp.4	EffExp.5	EffExp.6	EffExp.7
F (1, 402) =	11.982	8.818	17.158	25.172	14.635	31.404
p =	.001	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000
Partial eta squared =	.029	.021	.041	.059	.035	.072
PM training	M = 4.48 SD = .660	M = 4.47 SD = .709	M = 4.37 SD = .709	M = 4.43 SD = .603	M = 4.35 SD = .692	M = 4.26 SD = .761
No PM training	M = 4.22 SD = .706	M = 4.25 SD = .718	M = 4.01 SD = .840	M = 4.03 SD = .778	M = 4.02 SD = .821	M = 3.75 SD = .873

Note. Significant at the $p = <.006$ level.

Conflict resolution training. There was a statistically significant difference between those who had received conflict resolution training and those who had not, $F(8, 395) = 3.542$, $p = .001$, Pillai's Trace = .067, partial eta squared = .067. Using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha of .006 all eight of the efficacy expectation variables, when examined separately, reached significant levels. Again, the means for those who received training were higher than for those who had not (Table 23).

Table 23
Conflict Resolution Training and Efficacy Expectation

	EffExp.0	EffExp.1	EffExp.2	EffExp.3	EffExp.4	EffExp.5	EffExp.6	EffExp.7
F (1, 402) =	8.590	11.003	10.460	12.229	23.396	25.751	17.376	12.410
p =	.004	.001	.001	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000
Partial eta squared =	.021	.027	.025	.030	.055	.060	.041	.030
CR training	M = 4.42 SD = .667	M = 4.41 SD = .682	M = 4.48 SD = .597	M = 4.44 SD = .612	M = 4.32 SD = .709	M = 4.35 SD = .621	M = 4.29 SD = .722	M = 4.06 SD = .856
No CR training	M = 4.22 SD = .689	M = 4.18 SD = .737	M = 4.28 SD = .641	M = 4.20 SD = .741	M = 3.93 SD = .872	M = 3.98 SD = .815	M = 3.96 SD = .835	M = 3.76 SD = .865

Note. Significant at the $p = <.006$ level.

Bullying prevention training. MANOVA was performed to investigate bullying prevention training and efficacy expectation and revealed statistically significant differences, $F(8, 393) = 2.937$, $p = .003$, Pillai's Trace = .056, partial eta squared = .056. In this case, 7 of the 8 dependent variables, when considered separately, reached statistically significant levels at the adjusted alpha level of .006. The means for those receiving training were higher than for those without bullying prevention training (Table 24).

Table 24
Bullying Prevention Training and Efficacy Expectation

	EffExp.0	EffExp.1	EffExp.3	EffExp.4	EffExp.5	EffExp.6	EffExp.7
F (1, 402) =	8.554	15.992	15.384	15.978	12.200	12.110	7.956
p =	.004	.000	.000	.000	.001	.001	.005
Partial eta squared =	.021	.038	.037	.038	.030	.029	.020
BP training	M = 4.38 SD = .647	M = 4.38 SD = .663	M = 4.39 SD = .618	M = 4.21 SD = .768	M = 4.23 SD = .709	M = 4.20 SD = .762	M = 3.98 SD = .863
No BP training	M = 4.16 SD = .689	M = 4.07 SD = .756	M = 4.09 SD = .819	M = 3.85 SD = .899	M = 3.95 SD = .827	M = 3.89 SD = .850	M = 3.70 SD = .871

Note. Significant at the $p = <.006$ level.

Crisis intervention training. The final MANOVA conducted with efficacy expectation dependent variables revealed statistical significance between groups of

respondents who received crisis intervention training and those who did not, $F(8, 394) = 2.681$, $p = .007$, Pillai's Trace = .052, partial eta squared = .052. When examined separately, teaching students to use nonthreatening language (EffExp.3), $F(1, 401) = 8.179$, $p = .004$, partial eta squared = .020; to remain calm in conflict (EffExp.4), $F(1, 401) = 13.030$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .031; and to use conflict resolution skills (EffExp.5), $F(1, 401) = 13.086$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .032 reached significant levels. Again, the mean scores for those with training were higher than for those without crisis intervention training (Table 25).

Table 25

Crisis Intervention Training and Efficacy Expectation

	EffExp.3	EffExp.4	EffExp.5
$F(1, 401) =$	8.179	13.030	13.086
$p =$.004	.000	.000
Partial eta squared =	.020	.031	.032
CI training	M = 4.39 SD = .647	M = 4.23 SD = .733	M = 4.25 SD = .680
No CI training	M = 4.18 SD = .750	M = 3.93 SD = .922	M = 3.97 SD = .835

Note. Significant at the $p = <.006$ level.

Interaction effects. Two-way ANOVAs were performed to explore the impact of all pair combinations of training on efficacy expectation. Participants were divided into two groups according to whether or not they had received two specific trainings and the interaction effects on efficacy expectation variables were examined. The combinations that resulted in significantly significant interactions were crisis intervention with peer mediation training (Table 26) and conflict resolution with bullying prevention training (Table 27).

Table 26
Crisis Intervention with Peer Mediation Training

EffExp.1—I can effectively teach student to not discriminate against others based on social differences.						
CI training	PM training	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	p	Partial eta squared
No	No	4.09	.776	124	.024	.013
	Yes	4.61	.656	23		
Yes	No	4.32	.628	160		
	Yes	4.43	.657	99		
EffExp.3—I can effectively teach students to use nonthreatening language when speaking to others.						
CI training	PM training	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	P	Partial eta squared
No	No	4.10	.759	124	.003	.022
	Yes	4.65	.487	23		
Yes	No	4.37	.660	160		
	Yes	4.39	.652	99		
EffExp.4—I can effectively teach students remain calm when they encounter conflict.						
CI training	PM training	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	p	Partial eta squared
No	No	3.81	.914	124	.007	.018
	Yes	4.52	.730	23		
Yes	No	4.16	.743	160		
	Yes	4.31	.709	99		

Note. Significant at the $p = <.05$ level.

Table 27
Conflict Resolution with Bullying Prevention Training

EffExp.4—I can effectively teach students remain calm when they encounter conflict.						
CR training	BP training	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	p	Partial eta squared
No	No	3.87	.897	91	.031	.012
	Yes	3.98	.848	122		
Yes	No	3.75	.931	16		
	Yes	4.36	.671	176		
EffExp.5—I can effectively teach students to use conflict resolution skills.						
CR training	BP training	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	p	Partial eta squared
No	No	3.95	.861	91	.030	.012
	Yes	3.99	.777	122		
Yes	No	3.88	.619	16		
	Yes	4.39	.604	175		
EffExp.6—I can effectively teach students to refrain from fighting when they encounter conflict.						
CR training	BP training	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	p	Partial eta squared
No	No	3.95	.848	91	.001	.027
	Yes	3.96	.827	122		
Yes	No	3.56	.814	16		
	Yes	4.34	.684	175		

Note. Significant at the $p = <.05$ level

Crisis intervention with peer mediation training yielded statistically significant results in efficacy scores in teaching students to not discriminate against others based on social differences (EffExp.1), $F(1, 402) = 5.135$, $p = .024$; to use nonthreatening language when speaking to others (EffExp.3), $F(1, 402) = 8.904$, $p = .003$; and to remain calm in conflict (EffExp.4), $F(1, 402) = 7.292$, $p = .007$. The effect size however, was small (partial eta squared = .013, .022, .018 respectively). Examination of mean scores indicated that while the actual difference was small, efficacy scores were positively impacted by peer mediation training alone ($M = 4.61, 4.65, 4.52$ respectively) and having both trainings ($M = 4.43, 4.39, 4.31$ respectively). Having only crisis intervention training resulted in lower scores for these same efficacy variables ($M = 4.32, 4.37, 4.16$ respectively). The lowest scores were among those with neither training ($M = 4.09, 4.10, 3.81$ respectively). Having both trainings resulted in higher means while having neither resulted in the lowest means.

Conflict resolution with bullying prevention training also resulted in statistically significant interactions (although small effect sizes) in: 1) teaching students to remain calm in conflict (EffExp.4), $F(1, 401) = 4.687$, $p = .031$, partial eta squared = .012; 2) to use conflict resolution skills (EffExp.5), $F(1, 401) = 4.771$, $p = .030$, partial eta squared = .012; and 3) to refrain from fighting when in conflict (EffExp.6) $F(1, 400)$, $p = .001$, partial eta squared = .027. Efficacy scores were highest among those who received both trainings ($M = 4.36, 4.39, 4.34$ respectively) and those who had bullying prevention only ($M = 3.98, 3.99, 3.96$ respectively). Having neither training resulted in higher means ($M = 3.87, 3.95, 3.95$ respectively) than among those who received conflict resolution training only ($M = 3.75, 3.88, 3.56$ respectively). Having both trainings resulted in

higher efficacy variable means while having only conflict resolution appears to have depressed efficacy means.

Research Questions 5 and 6--Outcome Value

Outcome value was assessed in the areas of the importance of preventing violence in schools and the importance of teaching violence preventions skills to students. More than 96% of respondents reported believing that preventing violence in schools is important (4= *agree* or 5= *strongly agree*) (Table 20). About 90% believed that teaching violence prevention skills to students is important. ANOVAs were conducted to examine differences based on age, degree, race, years of experience, exposure to violence, variety and amount of trainings received, and the level of training in each of the five areas (peer mediation, conflict resolution, bullying prevention, anger management, and crisis intervention). There were no significant differences identified.

Chapter V: Discussion and implications

The purpose of this study was to explore teacher perceptions of violence prevention approaches. This included how the participants saw commonly utilized approaches as well as confidence in their abilities to teach students violence prevention. Rational choice theory suggests that teacher will weigh the costs and benefits of implementing a violence prevention and/or CRE program in determining choice of whether to implement a program and with what level of fidelity. The theory of self-efficacy holds that in addition to cost/benefit analysis, a teacher must believe that he or she can implement successfully. These theories inform the findings of this project in a couple of key ways. First, the data suggest that the majority of respondents believed that CRE skills would result in positive and valuable outcomes—or benefits. How they might perceive the costs was beyond the scope of this project but would be important in understanding the larger picture of a teacher's analysis of programming. Second, the majority of respondents believed that they could successfully teach students CR skills. This perception was impacted by the scope of training one received but even those with little or no training rated self-efficacy items rather high. In terms of theory, the data give us a partial picture of the process: teachers in these districts believed that they could effectively teach CR skills to students and they believed that this would result in a reduction in school violence which the nearly all respondents valued. The next question concerns how teachers perceive the costs of implementation. To more fully understand choice behavior in this context, more research would be required.

Outcome Expectation

Student skills. There were no significant differences discovered in the outcome expectation of the specific student skills between those exposed to violence more or less frequently or based on teaching experience and background. However, discrepancies were noted in the percentages of respondents who had positive outcome expectations for specific violence prevention skills and those who had actually received the training related to the same skills. For example almost 92% reported that teaching students to use conflict resolution skills would prevent violence but only about 47% had been trained in conflict resolution (Table 20 and Table 19). Similarly about 92% perceived remaining calm and refraining from fighting—skills associated with anger management—positively, while only about 21% had been trained in this area. Further examination of relevant factors may be warranted to explain why this is so. It may be a result of limited offerings of such training for teachers, difficulty finding time to pursue violence prevention training along with the other requirements of the job, or other resource obstacle. Another issue may be related to the perception that one already possesses the skills necessary and therefore, does not need further development. Most respondents perceived themselves as able to effectively teach student the skills to prevent violence in spite of the fact that many of these same individuals had not been trained to do so. Examination of the possible role of personal characteristics, attitudes, and beliefs concerning violence prevention and conflict resolution education might yield some workable solutions for school districts seeking to improve violence prevention training for their educators.

Preventative measures. Relative to outcome expectation of preventative methods (i.e., training teachers in violence prevention and teaching students to solve

problems with words) females and those with peer mediation training had higher mean scores for teaching students to use words than males or those without peer mediation training. Whether individuals value this as a result of peer mediation training or perhaps pursued this training because of this value is not clear. More than half of those participants who were trained in peer mediation elected to do so (Table 19). This compares to other trainings where the majority took the course because it was mandatory (61% conflict resolution, 73% bullying prevention, and 80% crisis intervention). Also, those with greater variety in training had higher means in perceptions of the outcome of training teachers in violence prevention than those with less variety. Again, it is not known whether one develops an appreciation for training before or after receiving it.

Efficacy Expectation

Perceptions were analyzed against numerous factors including variety and type of training in violence prevention, amount and type of teaching experience, and school and personal demographic data. The self-efficacy model suggests that more opportunities to practice a behavior—in this case teaching students skills to resolve conflict—would result in a stronger sense of confidence in one's ability to effectively do so. It would be expected that more experienced teachers and those more frequently exposed to violence in schools would have had substantial opportunities for practicing skills and therefore building confidence. However, this study did not find significant differences in perceptions of self-efficacy based on age, years of teaching experience, exposure to violence, teaching position, or the Title I status of the respondent's school. While this seems contrary to self-efficacy theory, it might be explained by other intervening factors

related to specific job-related dynamics including the leadership style and expectations at the school and district level. At the school level, for instance, there may be variation in approach to and consistency of response to conflict behavior. Teachers' beliefs or preferences may be vastly different from those of leadership creating a scenario in which teachers may feel conflicted and less effective. Limited resources and competing objectives complicate the school dynamic all the more. Beyond job-related dynamics, an individual's values, worldview, evaluation of experiences and teaching style/philosophy may impact perception of self-efficacy. Many teachers may only experience violence in their schools or on television and therefore be limited in their perceptions of it. Some might view the origin of student violence as too complex or entrenched to change and sense that relevant factors such as instability and violence in the home or community are far out of his or her control. Another potential factor may be that individual teachers likely have differing experiences in practice. Some may be supported, encouraged, and otherwise positively reinforced for teaching students skills or engaging in violence prevention-related professional development while others may receive negative feedback for similar efforts. In terms of teaching style and philosophy there are teachers who frequently defer to administration, behavior specialist, guidance counselors, and others to manage conflict whereas others prefer to handle such issues in the classroom. Some accept that educators teach academics as well as social skills while others tend to believe that the latter is the charge of families. Perhaps future research may shed light on the potential of these and other factors to impact self-efficacy in accomplishing the objectives of peace education.

Among the statistically significant findings a theme emerged: training history including variety of training, specific topics, and the interaction effects of combinations of training impacted perceptions of self-efficacy and outcome expectation more significantly than other demographic and background characteristics. Greater variety in training yielded higher efficacy expectation scores in 75% of efficacy expectation variables. In almost all cases efficacy expectation scores increased incrementally based on the number of trainings received. Having covered all five training topics had a consistently positive effect on perceptions of self-efficacy. Having three or four had an only slightly less significant impact. This result suggests that the provision of a variety of training for teachers may benefit violence prevention practice by increasing perceptions of efficacy which may lead to an increase in consistent and effective utilization of various conflict resolution education programs and strategies.

Different trainings yielded different efficacy expectation results across efficacy variables. Some training courses affected many variables while others only a few. Conflict resolution had positive effects on all of the eight variables' means. Bullying prevention saw similar results with the efficacy scores of seven variables effected. Peer mediation had statistically significant results with six while crisis intervention impacted three of the variables.

Other ways to examine the impact of specific trainings on efficacy is to look at the differences in mean scores between those who received the training and those who did not using independent-samples t-tests and to review the partial eta squared statistic. Examination of these statistics can give an indication of the strength of the training to impact efficacy in teaching specific skills. Partial eta squared suggests the effect size or

“magnitude of differences between the means” by identifying how much of the variance is explained by the training (Pallant, 2010, p. 210). According to Pallant one can utilize guidelines established by Cohen (1988) for evaluating eta squared: small effect size, .01 (1%); moderate effect size, .06 (6%); and large effect size, .138 (14%). Examination of means and partial eta squared statistics allows some tentative conclusions to be drawn about strengths of particular trainings. Peer mediation had the greatest effect on teaching students to use peer mediators, $t(405) = -5.64$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .075 (Table 28); use conflict resolution skills, $t(405) = -4.05$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .055; remain calm in conflict, $t(406) = -4.05$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .039; and refrain from fighting, $t(405) = -3.78$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .033. Conflict resolution training had the greatest effect on teaching students to use conflict resolution skills, $t(405) = -4.97$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .057; remain calm in conflict, $t(406) = -4.66$, two-tailed, eta squared = .051; and refrain from fighting, $t(405) = -4.05$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .039. Bullying prevention training had the greatest effect on teaching students to not discriminate based on social differences, $t(404) = -3.96$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .037; remain calm in conflict, $t(404) = -3.90$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .036; and use nonthreatening language when speaking to others, $t(404) = -3.73$, $p = .000$, two-tailed, eta squared = .033. Crisis intervention training had the largest effect on teaching students to use conflict resolution skills, $t(404) = -3.56$, two-tailed, eta squared = .031; and remain calm in conflict, $t(405) = -3.48$, $p = .001$, two-tailed, eta squared = .029. While there is some overlap with these results it suggests that particular topics have an effect on specific skills. This supports the indication that the greater the level of variety in training the greater the perception of

efficacy. A possible implication of this set of data is that these school districts might work to include a greater variety of training for their teachers. According to the survey, less than a quarter (22%) of respondents received peer mediation training through their school district (Table 19). Less than one third (33%) of respondents received district conflict resolution training, while more than one half had the benefit of district training in bullying prevention and crisis intervention (56% and 51% respectively). Whether this was due to the failure of the districts to offer all of these topics or a result of teachers simply not taking advantage of the opportunities is unclear. Further investigation of the reasons that more teachers are not more broadly trained would be a topic worth pursuing in an effort to increase teacher perceptions of self-efficacy in teaching violence prevention skills to students.

Table 28
Efficacy Means Differences and Eta Squared Statistics

		EffExp.0	EffExp.1	EffExp.2	EffExp.3	EffExp.4	EffExp.5	EffExp.6	EffExp.7
PM	Mean diff	.18	.25	.17	.20	.35	.38	.32	.51
	Effect size	.016	.028	.015	.017	.039	.055	.033	.075
CR	Mean diff	.19	.23	.20	.22	.37	.36	.32	.30
	Effect size	.020	.026	.025	.026	.051	.057	.039	.029
BP	Mean diff	.21	.31	.15	.29	.35	.29	.30	.27
	Effect size	.020	.037	.012	.033	.036	.028	.028	.019
CI	Mean diff	--	.18	.14	.19	.29	.27	.19	--
	Effect size	--	.006	.005	.007	.029	.031	.013	--
AM	Mean diff	.21	.18	.17	.21	.34	.31	.30	.26
	Effect size	.015	.010	.012	.015	.028	.028	.023	.015

Note. PM = peer mediation; CR= conflict resolution; BP = bullying prevention; CI= crisis intervention; AM= anger management

Respondents with more variety in their training history tended to perceive themselves as more effective in teaching violence prevention skills to students while certain combinations of trainings resulted in lower self-efficacy scores in teaching some skills to students. Interaction between pairs of training courses on efficacy expectations

suggested that some combinations may actually depress perceptions of efficacy. For example, having had training in conflict resolution did not yield higher means in teaching conflict resolution skills to students than having bullying prevention training. Nor did it yield higher means in three of the efficacy variables than having neither training. It is unclear as to why conflict resolution training has this weaker effect on perceptions of efficacy when not combined with bullying prevention. Conflict resolution training tends to focus on how actors in conflict can use problem solving processes and improve communication skills while bullying prevention programs often look more closely at developing student tolerance and on bystander skills. Perhaps it is when conflict is addressed from the perceptions of all involved—actors and bystanders—that teachers see themselves as better able to effectively teach students to remain calm, use conflict resolution skills, and refrain from fighting. Through a more thorough examination of the content and objectives of each course, the manner in which bullying prevention and conflict resolution together seem to boost self-efficacy might be better understood.

Crisis intervention training resulted in lower efficacy means than peer mediation in three of the variables when analyzed for interaction. This may be due to the difference in intensity of conflict that each area addressed. Peer mediation is used for lower level conflicts where parties are typically rational and able to use problem-solving strategies whereas crisis intervention is utilized for managing serious and emotionally volatile situations. Not surprisingly those with peer mediation training felt more confident in their abilities to teach students to stay calm in conflict than those with crisis intervention training. This may be a result of the differing levels of intensity associated with the issues addressed by the two strategies. Having both trainings had a positive effect on

efficacy scores suggesting that learning the skills to assist students at both ends of the conflict spectrum is beneficial. As with the combination of bullying prevention and conflict resolution, addressing conflict and violence prevention from multiple angles may give teachers an increased sense of empowerment and confidence.

Outcome Value

The vast majority of participants valued violence prevention: 96% believing preventing violence is important and 90% believing that teaching students violence prevention skills is important. The discrepancy between the percentages may be attributed to the belief that preventing violence is associated less with student skill than some other variable. Investigating how law enforcement, community and family, school administrators, and other relevant entities are perceived in terms of preventing school violence, in conjunction with teaching students skills, might provide information that would connect efforts across contexts.

Future Research

Future research may be warranted in light of the results of this research in the areas already discussed and in the broader context. First, a more thorough examination of specific trainings may provide a clearer understanding of how content impacts the various areas of efficacy expectation in teaching violence prevention. While the data from this project indicated that certain trainings yielded significant differences between individuals with and without training in specific areas of efficacy, it is not clear how this connects to the content of that training. By comparing the content with perceptions of efficacy in

these skills, districts may better evaluate the objectives of trainings. Also in terms of a school/teacher focus, qualitative examination of perceptions of obstacles and drivers to teacher choice behavior, CRE, and student skills may have the ability to contribute a richness of experience that was beyond the scope of this exploratory project. Questions that remain include those surrounding the lived experiences of teachers—perceived successes and failures, beliefs about violence and conflict among students and in the community, competing resources that may limit teacher practice, and the dynamics of school-based cultures.

Second, a greater understanding of the context of violence may inform the development of innovative violence prevention strategies in schools. Research suggests that socioeconomic status, exposure to violence in the home and community, race/ethnicity, family cohesion, and other social conditions are correlated to youth violence (Demosthenous, Bourhours, & Denosthenous, 2002; Ennett, Flewelling, & Pashall, 1998; Pearlman, Zierler, Gjelsvik, & Verhoek-Oftedahl, 2003; Riner & Saywell, 2002; St. George & Thomas, 1997; Singh & Ghandour, 2012; Sullivan, Klingbeil, & Van Norman, 2013) therefore addressing only one element of the equation may be insufficient. Further, there is a substantial body of research that indicates that African American youth are disproportionately subjected to exclusionary disciplinary practices (Balfanz, Byrnes, & Fox, 2013; The Center for Civil Rights Remedies, 2013; Frank, Hawken, Tobin, & Vincent, 2012; Vincent, Sprague, & Tobin, 2012). Looking at issues of race, sociodemographic factors, and psychosocial factors in the system in which schools are couched may result in greater success in reduction of violence. One such innovative program is in place in Broward County, Florida. The PROMISE program is

an initiative designed to intervene in student behavior incidents that might be handled by juvenile justice or those related to bullying or harassment, including drug/alcohol infractions, assault/threats, fighting, theft, and vandalism. The program utilizes a system of care approach that involves academic assistance, counseling, social skills/CR training, prevention activities, restorative justice, parental involvement, and support from other community agencies. Such programs address the problem of youth violence systemically rather than symptomatically.

Contribution to the Field of CR

CR in schools is essentially a microcosm of the field of CR such that strong, comprehensive programs in schools are borne of the goals, contributions, and foci of the field. CR addresses issues such as (a) methods of resolving conflict, (b) establishing socially just environments, and (c) developing/institutionalizing systems for managing conflict. In schools comprehensive CR programs (a) teach students skills for resolving conflict, (b) teach about social justice, and (c) establish systems for managing conflict in the school setting. Disciplines that contribute to the field include international and labor relations; professions such as law, business, or public administration; social justice movements; and peace studies. School CR programs draw from contributions of social justice movements and peace studies. Types of conflict addressed by CR range from interpersonal to international. Interpersonal and intergroup conflicts are the primary foci in school-based CR programs, but strong programs will infuse CR foci throughout academic content.

The field of conflict resolution seeks to understand conflict and effective methods of its resolution with the ultimate goal being the development of processes and skills aimed at the establishment of a more peaceable world. Violence prevention, conflict resolution, and peace education—often derived from CR research—are critical endeavors for our schools to undertake to ensure safety and provision of necessary education for our children. Skills for resolving conflict and understanding concepts of equity and tolerance are learned and therefore must be taught and practiced by teachers and school leadership.

This research project contributes to this through identification of possible methods of increasing teacher beliefs of self-efficacy and the resultant propensity for teaching and practicing CR skills to our youth. While we can make programs available to schools and classrooms, teachers must utilize them with fidelity to see the desired results. Self-efficacy theory suggests that an individual is more likely to employ strategies when he or she feels as though they will be successful. Training is one step in the process of building the required perceptions of self-efficacy in teachers that may be required to fully and viably implement conflict resolution education programs. Self-efficacy, which often begins with training, might involve establishing coaching programs so that teachers can then feel success through performance accomplishments. The policies that drive the training of new and veteran teachers might benefit from a broadening of requirements such that recipients are expected to obtain a more comprehensive set of skills and knowledge. While this might look different from state to state and district to district, a set of standards can be created similar to the Common Core Standards for academics that would provide the necessary range of training to strengthen perceptions of self-efficacy. Through systematic examination of training and teacher perceptions, school districts may

target and hone training programs, modify training requirements, and work toward systems to maintain teacher self-efficacy. With the goal of embedding teacher-centered skills, knowledge, and beliefs in the larger context of violence prevention in the community we might better create conflict resolution programs with the necessary longevity to be successful in preventing violence in school and building pro-social skills for society's future adults.

Further research and the identification of other potentially intervening factors in the effective and consistent use of CRE may advance the practice of violence prevention in schools and inform the creation of new approaches to this endeavor. The hope would be for researchers and policy-makers to look both systematically at the larger context within which our schools function and individually at the dynamics of the school and practitioner. In doing so we might develop and institute innovative and comprehensive initiatives that address all types and intensities conflict through teaching an array of skills and in multiple settings with the support and participation of community resources and families.

Limitations

There are three primary limitations of this research that should be considered. First the sample used in this study was comprised of teachers from two school districts in central Florida, thus results cannot be generalized to other populations. Second, the data were self-reported through participants' school district email accounts. In spite of the assurances of confidentiality, individuals may have made what they would see as desirable responses. Third, most participants viewed themselves as effective such that

actual differences in scores, while statistically significant, did not always result in large effect sizes.

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Appendix: Survey instrument

Age _____ **Years teaching** _____ **District** _____

Highest degree completed Bachelor Master Specialist Doctorate

Sex Male Female

Race/ethnicity White Black Asian Hispanic Other

Do you teach at a **Title I** school? Yes No

Certification (please circle those that reflect your current teaching position)

Elementary (K-5) Secondary (6-12) ESE Pre-K Specialist (PE, art, music)

About how often do you encounter situations that result in either violence or staff intervention to prevent violence?

Never/almost never A few times per year Monthly Weekly Daily

Please indicate your participation in the following trainings.

Bullying prevention Yes No _____hours

Peer mediation Yes No _____hours

Conflict resolution Yes No _____hours

Anger management Yes No _____hours

Crisis intervention/prevention Yes No _____hours

1. Please use a five point scale in which **1 is strongly disagree** and **5 is strongly agree** to rate the following statements:

____I believe preventing school violence is important.

____I value teaching violence prevention skills to students.

2. Please use a five point scale in which **1 is strongly disagree** and **5 is strongly agree** to complete the following statement:

I believe I can effectively teach students to_____.

- ___respect others who are of a different national origin or ethnicity
 - ___not discriminate against others based on social differences (i.e. gender, class, physical disability)
 - ___seek help from school staff when they encounter conflict with others
 - ___use nonthreatening language when speaking to others
 - ___remain calm when they encounter conflict
 - ___conflict resolution skills
 - ___refrain from fighting when they encounter conflict with others
 - ___use peer mediators when they encounter difficult situations with others
-

3. Please use a five point scale in which **1 is strongly disagree** and **5 is strongly agree** to complete the following statement:

If I effectively teach students to_____it will prevent school violence.

- ___respect others who are of a different national origin or ethnicity
 - ___not discriminate against others based on social differences (i.e. gender, class, physical disability)
 - ___seek help from school staff when they encounter conflict with others
 - ___use nonthreatening language when speaking to others
 - ___remain calm when they encounter conflict
 - ___conflict resolution skills
 - ___refrain from fighting when they encounter conflict with others
 - ___use peer mediators when they encounter difficult situations with others
-

4. Please use a five point scale in which **1 is extremely ineffective** and **5 is extremely effective** to answer the following question.

How effective do you believe each of the following is to reduce school violence?

- ___Training teachers and school staff in violence prevention
 - ___Teaching children to resolve problems with words
 - ___Requesting parent/teacher meeting at school for those involved
 - ___Referring students to the school counselor
 - ___Referring students to the principal
 - ___Keeping students after school
 - ___Suspending students from school
-